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ART. I.—COMPARATIVE VIEW OF THE COMMERCE OF FRANCE, GREAT BRITAIN, AND THE UNITED STATES, FROM 1827 TO 1836.*

THE destiny of those nations of the present day who have made the furthest advances in civilization is connected in the most intimate manner with their commercial prosperity. Commerce is the most fertile source of wealth, and, consequently, of power; but the great and important interests which have become the subjects of daily discussion, cannot be thoroughly and completely understood, unless the facts connected with the questions are clearly stated and exhibited under their various forms, so that all their relations may at once be perceived. The great task, that of collecting and arranging such facts, necessarily devolves upon government, by whom alone the necessary knowledge of them can be obtained. Having had occasion formerly to deplore the scantiness of such materials, and to complain of the reserve with which power dispensed the light of which it alone had possession, we have now the pleasure of lauding the facilities readily afforded in the present day in France, to any inquiries into the causes and progress of our national prosperity.

In its relations to the public, the administration of the customhouse has emancipated itself from the trammels imposed upon it under the "Empire," and which were carefully preserved by the "Restoration;" it has ceased, to the great advantage of the state, to shut up from public view the important facts which it daily collects. Superintending one of the branches of the public revenue, it has the means of verifying and comparing the acts of commerce, the movements of which are submitted to its inspection. The system of which the customhouse is the agent, does not appertain to

* For this able and interesting article, which we have translated from the French, we are indebted to the politeness of M. D. L. Rodet, its distinguished author, from whom we received a copy of it as originally published in the *Revue des Deux Mondes*.

it. The system emanates from the political power; it is the expression of the economy of the state, at least so far as science has penetrated into its legislation. In this point of view, we acknowledge the administration of the customhouse entitled to additional gratitude for the extreme care which they have taken in the preparation of the documents emanating from them, which are to have such an influence in determining the modifications that our system demands. The able men who direct this administration, and superintend the preparation of the works it puts forth, do not stop short in their career of improvement; the documents that issue from their hands show themselves more and more complete, and they will become still more so in proportion as our legislators, feeling the want of additional light, are willing to meet the expense of obtaining it.

After having, since 1824, supplanted the meager statements of the former directors, by annual tables, methodically arranged, the administration has just issued a *résumé* of its works in a fine volume entitled—“*Tableau décennal du Commerce de la France avec ses Colonies, et les puissances étrangères de 1827 à 1836.*” Importations, exportations, navigation, transit entrepôts, fisheries, drawbacks, all are collected and grouped under divers points of view, so that not a question that the book can suggest need remain unanswered for want of the means for its solution. Not that we give an entire assent to all its subdivisions and classifications, some of which are useless and some founded upon error, but our perception of these imperfections need not prevent our acknowledging the high value of the work.

During the peace that, for a quarter of a century, Europe, or rather, we should say, the world has enjoyed, the public fortunes of the nations have rapidly accumulated. Labor has produced capital, and as the terrible consummation of war has not been effected, this capital, instead of being destroyed, has increased and brought forth fruit, and has served as the basis of a commerce “of exchange, the progress of which is very far from having reached its ultimate point. Political troubles, revolutions, and crises of credit occasioned by overtrading, have in some instances interrupted the movement, but as soon as these causes have ceased to act, the people hasten with renewed energy to regain the time which has been lost, and a period of redoubled activity soon compensates for the momentary interruption, and re-establishes the supremacy of the “law of progress.”

Must we conclude from what we have said, that all nations called to take a part in this general commerce, preserve the relative positions from which they started? We do not think so. On the contrary, we believe that each day France cedes something of the ground which she had acquired, and which she ought to occupy. The demonstration of this unfortunate truth will no doubt be more interesting than a cold analysis of the decennial tables, in which, however, we find the elements of our conviction.

In Europe, Portugal, hardly reduced to tranquillity, dreams not of re-establishing its commerce or industry. Spain has been consuming herself in a struggle, which the spectators have suffered to be prolonged for want of power to come to an understanding as to the means by which it should be prevented. In Italy the Sardinian states, each day becoming more and more fashioned to a uniform domination, find in the activity of their ancient Ligures the elements of commercial prosperity. The other

states are following their example, while Lombardy and Venice, becoming more and more an integral part of the Austrian empire, content themselves with the wealth which a fertile soil offers as a certain reward to their labor. The Low Countries, since their separation, have struggled in emulation: Belgium for the development of her capital and the resources of her soil; Holland for the improvement of its colonies, which are rapidly increasing in importance, without exciting the notice of the world. Will not one or the other of these powers finish by ceding some port to the grand customhouse confederation of the German states? Prussia has united under its patronage twenty-five millions of Germans through the means of a uniform tariff, protective but not prohibitive, which has done more than all the diets and political confederations. This bond acquires a strength each day that will render it difficult to dissolve. Hanover, Brunswick, and the Hanse Towns, cramped in their relations to the confederated states, are evidently destined to accede to, and to complete this Germanic union. The Germans, as a commercial and producing people, will soon find themselves mixed up and confounded in one general direction. As to Austria, with her eyes turned towards the Adriatic and her Italian possessions, and pre-occupied with the navigation of the Danube, she has not much occasion to trouble herself with what passes on the Rhine or the Elbe. She renounces without difficulty any participation in a system from which it is so easy for her to live apart.

In terminating this rapid glance at the condition of those states who are nearly all of them under forms of government which do not render publicity necessary, we may remark that it is very difficult to obtain, in relation to each of them, statements sufficiently detailed, or extending over a long enough period, to enable us to make a comparison with the commerce of France. But two other grand nations, Great Britain and the United States, put forth each year the most elaborate documents, containing the details of the divers branches of their social state, and which enable us to appreciate their simultaneous progress. These three nations, in their different positions, have placed themselves in the present day, by their power, their intelligence, and their activity, at the head of the civilized world.

Our intention is not, as we have already said, to present a meager analysis of a work that is itself nothing, but a collection of interesting facts under divers heads,—but to make the best use we can of those facts, and to group them in such a way as to draw from them the conclusion that struck us as being the most remarkable. The date from which commences the decennial period adopted by the administration of the custom-house, is happily chosen, as then may be considered to have ceased the effects of the crisis in English affairs, which took place in the year 1825, and which pressed with considerable force upon part of the year 1826. In the beginning of 1827, the commercial movement commenced an ascent which each political or financial perturbation for the moment interrupts. The three nations whose commerce we are about to compare, are situated in many things very much alike, and no event can exert any disturbing influence upon the commerce of one, without its influence reacting upon the affairs of the others.

Commerce does not move in a regular and periodic manner. If some obstacle interferes with it in some of its relations, its development is so much more lively when this obstacle is removed, and a reaction imme-

diately results, tending to the restoration of affairs to a normal state. We have thought it best to divide the decennial period into successive groups of three years, leaving out of our comparison the last year, 1836, which we think ought to be taken by itself, and which will be found superior to the average, resulting from its union with 1837 and 1838, years which felt the effects of the commercial crisis in the United States. But to understand the estimates of these periods it will be necessary to give some explanations, which we will give after the following tabular summaries, of the system of official valuation followed in each country :

SUMMARY OF THE COMMERCE OF FRANCE.

Decennial Period from 1827 to 1836.

SHIPPING ENTERED, AND IMPORTATIONS.

	Tons.	Francs.
French vessels, . . .	3,749,705 . . .	Value imported, . . . 2,575,567,352
Foreign do. . . .	6,445,049 . . .	do. do. . . . 1,888,557,310
Total, . . .	10,194,754	4,464,124,562
Importations by land,		2,209,518,852
Total value of importations,		6,673,643,414

Of which there has been consumed in the country,		4,799,507,814
Re-exported,		1,770,020,357
Leaving in store, or in the course of transit,		104,115,243

SHIPPING CLEARED, AND EXPORTATIONS.

	Tons.	Francs.
French vessels, . . .	3,424,676 . . .	Value exported, . . . 2,315,690,862
Foreign do. . . .	4,553,279 . . .	do. do. . . . 2,744,640,115
Total, . . .	7,977,955	5,060,330,977
Exportations by land,		1,923,656,008
Total value of exportations,		6,983,986,985
Of this the foreign products re-exported amount to,		1,770,020,357
French products exported,		5,213,966,628
The specie and the precious metals amount—		

		Francs.
Imported,	to 1,646,548,718
Exported,	to 699,977,520

and are not included in the preceding table.

French navigation, for the ten years, is divided as follows :—

IMPORTATION.

	Tons.	Francs.
The four sugar colonies, 1,025,531 . . .	Value imported, . . .	581,619,346
Senegal,	29,834 . . .	do. do. . . . 27,664,616
Fisheries,	534,932 . . .	do. do. . . . 70,566,888
Commerce reserved to		
France,	1,590,297 . . .	do. do. . . . 679,850,850
Foreign commerce, . . .	2,159,408 . . .	do. do. . . . 1,895,716,402

EXPORTATION.

	<i>Tons.</i>		<i>France.</i>
The four sugar colonies,	1,068,684	Value exported,	414,250,341
Senegal,	45,116	do. do.	42,763,470
Fisheries,	552,547	do. do.	26,435,427
Commerce reserved to			
France,	1,666,347	do. do.	483,449,238
Foreign commerce,	1,758,329	do. do.	1,832,241,624

STATEMENT OF EACH YEAR.

<i>Year.</i>	<i>Shipping Entered.</i> <i>Tons.</i>	<i>Shipping Entered.</i> <i>Tons.</i>	<i>Importations.</i> <i>France.</i>	<i>Exportations.</i> <i>France.</i>
1827	828,611	786,212	656,804,228	602,401,276
1828	874,230	787,354	607,677,321	609,922,632
1829	912,804	736,690	616,353,397	607,518,646
1830	1,009,454	629,139	638,338,433	572,664,064
1831	794,410	689,234	512,825,551	618,169,911
1832	1,114,586	808,989	652,872,341	696,282,132
1833	980,892	782,868	693,275,752	766,316,312
1834	1,131,404	888,433	720,194,336	714,705,038
1835	1,174,032	871,946	760,726,696	834,422,218
1836	1,374,321	997,090	905,575,359	961,284,756

SUMMARY OF THE COMMERCE OF THE UNITED KINGDOM OF GREAT BRITAIN AND IRELAND.

Decennial Period from 1827 to 1836.

SHIPPING ENTERED, AND IMPORTATIONS.

	<i>Tons.</i>	<i>Liv. sterl.</i>
British vessels,	22,528,608	Official value exp'd, 471,502,281
Foreign do.	7,822,078	
Total,	30,350,686 or at 25 fr. 20 c.,	11,881,857,481

SHIPPING CLEARED, AND EXPORTATIONS.

	<i>Tons.</i>	<i>Liv. sterl.</i>
British vessels,	22,081,522	Official value imp'd,—
Foreign do.	7,963,649	British products, 654,382,045 Foreign mer'dise, 107,292,061
Total,	30,045,171	761,674,106

	<i>France.</i>
Or in francs, for the British products,	16,490,427,534
" " " foreign merchandise,	2,703,759,937

	<i>France.</i>
Total,	19,194,187,471

	<i>Liv. sterl.</i>
The real or declared value of British products was, however, instead of 654,382,045 liv. sterling, only	402,583,100
And, allowing for the foreign merchandise the official value aforesaid—	107,292,061

	<i>Liv. sterl.</i>
The export trade becomes reduced to	509,875,161

	<i>Frances.</i>
Or in francs, for the British products,	10,145,094,120
" " " foreign merchandise	2,703,759,937

Total, (which is more in accordance with the importations,) 12,848,853,057
The precious metals and specie are not included in the above.

SUMMARY OF THE COMMERCE OF THE UNITED STATES.

Decennial Period from 1827 to 1836.

SHIPPING ENTERED, AND IMPORTATIONS.

	<i>Tons.</i>	<i>Dollars.</i>
American vessels, . . .	10,293,640	Value imported, 995,244,698
Foreign do. . .	3,611,721	do. do. 96,854,451
Total, . . .	<u>13,905,361</u>	<u>1,092,099,149</u>
		Or at 5 fr. 25 c. . . . f.5,733,520,532

SHIPPING CLEARED, AND EXPORTATIONS.

	<i>Tons.</i>	<i>Dollars.</i>
American vessels, . . .	10,734,094	Value exported, 727,874,710
Foreign do. . .	3,588,775	do. do. 186,244,531
Total, . . .	<u>14,332,599</u>	<u>914,119,241</u>
		Or in francs, 4,799,126,015

The exportations were—

	<i>Dollars.</i>	<i>Frances.</i>
American products, . . .	708,615,251 or 3,720,232,587	
Foreign merchandise, . . .	205,503,510 or 1,078,893,428	

The American documents include bullion and specie, which amount to—

	<i>IMPORTED.</i>	<i>Dollars.</i>	<i>Frances.</i>
On American account, . . .	95,596,668	or 501,882,507	
	<i>EXPORTED.</i>		
Money of the United States, . . .	8,598,746	or 45,143,406	
Bullion and foreign coin, . . .	45,024,246	or 236,377,291	
Total, . . .	<u>53,622,990</u>	<u>or 281,520,697</u>	

AVERAGE YEAR OF THE DECAENNIAL PERIOD, 1827 TO 1836

SHIPPING ENTERED.	FRANCE.	GREAT BRITAIN.	U. STATES.
	<i>Tons.</i>	<i>Tons.</i>	<i>Tons.</i>
National vessels,	374,907	2,252,861	1,029,364
Foreign do.	644,505	782,208	361,172
	<u>1,019,412</u>	<u>3,035,069</u>	<u>1,380,536</u>
SHIPPING CLEARED.			
National vessels,	324,468	2,208,152	1,073,409
Foreign do.	455,328	796,365	358,878
	<u>799,796</u>	<u>3,004,517</u>	<u>1,432,287</u>

IMPORTATIONS.	FRANCE. <i>Francs.</i>	GREAT BRITAIN. <i>Francs.</i>	UNITED STATES. <i>Francs.</i>
By sea and by land,	667,364,341	1,188,185,748	573,352,053(1)
EXPORTATIONS.			
National products, .	521,396,663	1,014,509,412(2)	372,023,259(3)
Foreign merchandise, 177,002,036		270,375,994	107,889,343(4)
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	698,398,699	1,284,885,406	479,912,602(5)
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SECTION II.—STANDARD OF VALUATION.

In France the standard of official valuation, as applied by the custom-house, has been adopted after a long inquiry, and is founded upon the estimate of average prices during the time of the discussion. It was applied for the first time to commercial tables in 1825, and in comparing the results of that year with those that should have been produced by the old standards of value that had been used anterior to that time, there was found a difference of seventy-four millions of francs less in the value of importations, and sixty-four millions more in the value of exportations. One sees from this to what errors we were exposed in the pretended deductions respecting the balance of commerce, since, by the old method of estimating, there was an error in one year of one hundred and thirty-eight millions. The present official standard has since been applied to all the following years. It expresses vaguely enough some points, and unfortunately keeps no account of those changes of value which are constantly taking place.

Great Britain employs, for its official valuation, a rate that dates as far back as 1696, and which has been properly increased only upon those articles which have been produced since then. It is necessary, therefore, for a correct estimate, to institute a comparison between the declared and the real value.

Neither France or Great Britain comprise, in their commercial tables, the exportation or importation of bullion or coin.

The United States employ, for a rate of valuation, the price current of the foreign port from whence the merchandise arrives, when they have reference to importation ; and the price current at the American port where the cargo is embarked, when they have reference to goods exported. The precious metals are included in the estimates of imports as well as exports ; but in this last case, when speaking of American coins, they are included in the statement of native manufactured articles.

It is easy to see, from what we have said, that the amounts we are about to compare are very far from having a mathematical certainty. They only serve as an indication of the backward or forward movement of the commerce of the three powers.

(1) Inclusive of precious metals and specie, 50,188,251 francs.

(2) Real or declared value.

(3) Comprising American money,..... 4,514,341 francs.

(4) " precious metals,..... 23,637,729 "

(5) Making a total of..... 28,152,070

SECTION III.—COMMERCE OF FRANCE FOR THE DECENTNIAL PERIOD.

We will now proceed to examine more in detail the proportion in which it is distributed throughout the decennial period of the commerce of which we have presented the general summary. The period from 1827 to 1836 offers peculiarities which induce us to divide it into successive groups of three years each, leaving by itself the year 1836, during which occurred an extraordinary commercial excitement which can hardly be considered a fair standard of comparison.

France has a land trade which includes not only its own proper affairs, but the business of other nations who borrow her territory as a means of transit. This last, the facilities for which has only been recently granted, is on the increase, and tends to swell the amount of trade. As to the maritime commerce, one part is made in conjunction with foreign shipping under the restriction of customhouse laws, which, except in those cases where mutual reciprocity has been guarantied, give to the French flag the preference in the importation of nearly all the articles of trade. The other part of our commerce prohibited to foreign vessels, includes the carrying trade with our colonies, our coasting trade, and fisheries.

In all our statements we shall use only round numbers, and shall express values in francs even for foreign commerce.

In the trade by land, France shows—

	IMPORTATIONS.	EXPORTATIONS.
Average year from 1827 to 1829, . . .	200,000,000	163,000,000
“ “ 1830 to 1832, . . .	183,000,000	178,000,000
“ “ 1833 to 1835, . . .	244,000,000	218,000,000
The year 1836,	328,000,000	244,000,000

By sea and under the French flag—

	IMPORTATIONS.		EXPORTATIONS.	
Average year	Tons.	Value.	Tons.	Value.
from 1827 to 1829, . . .	343,000	238,000,000	330,000	224,000,000
“ 1830 to 1832, . . .	348,000	235,000,000	311,000	208,000,000
“ 1833 to 1835, . . .	387,000	283,000,000	359,000	248,000,000
The year 1836,	485,000	308,000,000	427,000	277,000,000

Under foreign flags—

Average year	Tons.	Value.	Tons.	Value.
from 1827 to 1829, . . .	528,000	158,000,000	440,000	220,000,000
“ 1830 to 1832, . . .	615,000	184,000,000	398,000	243,000,000
“ 1833 to 1835, . . .	707,000	198,000,000	489,000	305,000,000
The year 1836,	889,000	270,000,000	570,000	440,000,000

The value of goods exported is divided into—

	<i>Foreign Goods</i>	<i>Re-exported, or Transmitted.</i>	<i>French Products.</i>	<i>Total Exportation.</i>
Average year				
from 1827 to 1829, . . .	99,000,000		508,000,000	607,000,000
“ 1830 to 1832, . . .	157,000,000		472,000,000	629,000,000
“ 1833 to 1835, . . .	223,000,000		549,000,000	772,000,000
The year 1836,	332,000,000		629,000,000	961,000,000

The French shipping is divided as follows—

ENTERED.

	Sugar Colonies. Tons.	Senegal. Tons.	Fisheries. Tons.	Reserved exclusively to French Vessels. Tons.	Other Countries. Tons.
Average year from 1827 to 1829,	104,338	3,008	51,726	159,122	184,458
" 1830 to 1832,	103,545	2,827	46,668	153,040	204,738
" 1833 to 1835,	99,148	2,906	58,205	160,259	226,621
The year 1836,	104,289	3,609	65,135	173,033	311,953

Average year	CLEARED.				
from 1827 to 1829,	118,355	5,060	52,442	175,857	154,032
" 1830 to 1832,	102,527	3,646	50,049	156,222	154,497
" 1833 to 1835,	101,315	4,558	62,039	167,912	190,820
The year 1836,	102,092	5,322	58,957	166,371	260,283

The trade conducted in French vessels amounts to—

IMPORTATION.

	French Colonies and Fisheries.	Other Countries.
Average year from 1827 to 1829,	68,000,000	170,000,000
" " 1830 to 1832,	69,000,000	166,000,000
" " 1833 to 1835,	69,000,000	214,000,000
The year 1836,	70,000,000	238,000,000

EXPORTATION.

	175,000,000
Average year from 1827 to 1829,	49,000,000
" " 1830 to 1832,	44,000,000
" " 1833 to 1835,	48,000,000
The year 1836,	58,000,000

Thus, as we have said, we do not consider the trade of the country under the same point of view that has been adopted in the classifications of the customhouse. We do not think that the official classifications are always calculated to fulfil the purpose intended, and we find it difficult to understand how a list of materials of the first necessity to industry can include race-horses and hunting-dogs, and not sheep; drugs and wool used without preparation in beds, and not raw sugar which is used in so many ways, and the products of which exported are classified as manufactures; and we cannot regard brandy, or tanned and dressed skins as natural products. The misfortune of such classifications is, that they serve as the ground for false reasonings in relation to the relative importance of some branches of our foreign commerce. In the present case we shall confine ourselves to an enumeration of some of the principal articles, and their official value.

	Importation.	Stored and Delivered for Consumption.
Silk,	734,000,000	400,000,000
Cotton,	711,000,000	589,000,000
Wool and Hair,	288,000,000	225,000,000
Skins of Animals,	162,000,000	140,000,000
Colonial Sugar,	490,000,000	446,000,000
Olive Oil,	320,000,000	296,000,000
Indigo,	249,000,000	180,000,000
Fabrics of Silk,	231,000,000	28,000,000

<i>Articles.—Continued.</i>	<i>Importation.</i>	<i>Stored and Delivered for Consumption.</i>
Fabrics of Flax and Hemp,	225,000,000	161,000,000
“ Wool,	74,000,000	
“ Cotton,	163,000,000	
Ores and Coal,	405,000,000	388,000,000

The principal articles exported during the same period are as follows :—

	<i>Exportations.</i>	<i>Produce of the Soil, or of French Industry, Exported.</i>
Wines,	473,000,000	467,000,000
Brandy,	199,000,000	193,000,000
Fabrics of Silk,	1,434,000,000	1,215,000,000
“ Cotton,	664,000,000	543,000,000
“ Wool,	408,000,000	339,000,000
“ Flax and Hemp,	428,000,000	326,000,000
Embroidery and other products of Parisian industry,	206,000,000	197,000,000
Refined Sugar,	102,000,000	81,000,000
Silk,	380,000,000	
Cotton,	102,000,000	

The nations with whom the commercial relations of France are the most important, are the United States, The Low Countries, Sardinia, England, Austria, The German States, Switzerland, Spain, Russia, and our own colonies.

SECTION IV.—COMMERCE OF GREAT BRITAIN.

We have mentioned the origin of the standard applied to the valuation of the commerce of Great Britain. When first used it accorded nearly with the truth, but time has effected a great difference, and in 1798 Parliament required that the actual and real value should be noted in relation to products of the soil or of British industry.

The shipping of the United Kingdom is found thus—

	<i>ENTERED.</i>		
	<i>British Flag.</i>	<i>Foreign Flags.</i>	<i>Total.</i>
Av. year from 1827 to 1829,	2,122,000	699,000	2,821,000
“ “ 1830 to 1832,	2,244,000	758,000	3,002,000
“ “ 1833 to 1835,	2,308,000	820,000	3,128,000
The year 1836,	2,505,000	989,000	3,494,000

	<i>CLEARED.</i>		
Av. year from 1827 to 1829,	1,986,000	702,000	2,688,000
“ “ 1830 to 1832,	2,211,000	768,000	2,979,000
“ “ 1833 to 1835,	2,320,000	839,000	3,159,000
The year 1836,	2,532,000	1,035,000	3,567,000

	<i>IMPORTS.</i>	<i>Official Value.—France.</i>
Average year from 1827 to 1829, . . .	1,125,000,000	
“ “ 1830 to 1832, . . .	1,181,000,000	
“ “ 1833 to 1835, . . .	1,187,000,000	
The year 1826,	1,404,000,000	

EXPORTS.

	<i>Foreign Products, Re-exported. Official Value.—Francs.</i>	<i>British Products. Francs.</i>	<i>Total. Francs.</i>
Average year			
from 1827 to 1829,	255,000,000	1,354,000,000	1,609,000,000
" 1830 to 1832,	255,000,000	1,570,000,000	1,825,000,000
" 1833 to 1835,	287,000,000	1,860,000,000	2,147,000,000
The year 1836,	312,000,000	2,139,000,000	2,451,000,000

But if, retaining the official estimate for foreign products exported, we consider the real and declared value of British products, we shall find the exports to be as follows:—

	<i>Foreign Products. Official Value. Francs.</i>	<i>British Products. Declared Value. Francs.</i>	<i>Total. Francs.</i>
Average year			
from 1827 to 1829,	255,000,000	923,000,000	1,178,000,000
" 1830 to 1832,	255,000,000	940,000,000	1,195,000,000
" 1833 to 1835,	287,000,000	1,074,000,000	1,361,000,000
The year 1836,	312,000,000	1,336,000,000	1,648,000,000

The commerce of England extends to every country in the world. Her colonies in North America and the East Indies, South America, the Mediterranean, and the nations of Europe, offer vast markets for her products, but none of equal importance to that which she finds in the United States. Of forty-seven millions sterling, the declared value of British exports in 1835, the United States alone took ten millions and a half, and of fifty-three millions in 1836, they took twelve millions and a half.

SECTION V.—COMMERCE OF THE UNITED STATES.

We have stated upon what principles are based the commercial estimates presented to Congress. With them the financial year commences the first of October, and finishes the last of September of the following year. We have, in consequence, commenced our comparative periods with October, 1826, and will end with September, 1836. We have already given a general table of facts for the whole period, and we will now add the more important details and divisions.

The United States shipping has thus been classed and reported—

	<i>ENTERED.</i>		
	<i>American Vess. Tons.</i>	<i>For. Vess. Tons.</i>	<i>Total. Tons.</i>
Av. year from 1826-27 to 1828-29,	887,000	139,000	1,026,000
" " 1829-30 to 1831-32,	946,000	269,000	1,215,000
" " 1832-33 to 1834-35,	1,179,000	569,000	1,748,000
The year 1835-36,	1,255,000	680,000	1,935,000

CLEARED.

Av. year from 1826-27 to 1828-29,	941,000	138,000	1,079,000
" " 1829-30 to 1831-32,	973,000	264,000	1,237,000
" " 1832-33 to 1834-35,	1,225,000	568,000	1,794,000
The year 1835-36,	1,315,000	675,000	1,990,000

IMPORTATIONS.

Average year	<i>American Flag.</i> Francs.	<i>Foreign Flags.</i> Francs.	Total. Francs.
from 1826-27 to 1828-29,	396,000,000	28,000,000	424,000,000
“ 1829-30 to 1831-32,	438,000,000	43,000,000	481,000,000
“ 1832-33 to 1834-35,	607,000,000	66,000,000	673,000,000
The year 1836, . . .	901,000,000	96,000,000	997,000,000

EXPORTATIONS.

Average year	<i>American Products.</i> Francs.	<i>Foreign Products,</i> Re-exported. Francs.	Total. Francs.
from 1826-27 to 1828-29,	289,000,000	108,000,000	397,000,000
“ 1829-30 to 1831-32,	322,000,000	102,000,000	424,000,000
“ 1832-33 to 1834-35,	442,000,000	111,000,000	553,000,000
The year 1835-36, . . .	561,000,000	114,000,000	675,000,000

The export trade is shared as follows:—

Average year	<i>American Flag.</i> Francs.	<i>Foreign Flags.</i> Francs.	Total. Francs.
from 1826-27 to 1828-29,	342,000,000	55,000,000	397,000,000
“ 1829-30 to 1832-33,	342,000,000	82,000,000	424,000,000
“ 1833-34 to 1834-35,	420,000,000	133,000,000	553,000,000
The year 1836, . . .	510,000,000	165,000,000	675,000,000

As we have said, the United States documents comprise in their tables the precious metals and coins; and we find that for the decennial period there was—

	<i>Francs.</i>		<i>Francs.</i>
Imported,	501,882,000	Average year,	50,188,000
Exported,	281,520,000	“ “	28,152,000
	<hr/>		<hr/>
Leaving an excess of	220,362,000	“ “	22,036,000
To which must be added the produce of native mines, nearly	26,250,000	“ “	2,625,000
	<hr/>		<hr/>
Increase of circulation in ten years,	246,612,000	“ “	24,661,000

A certain portion of American commerce does not make in the official estimates the appearance that it really deserves. In every sea this kind of commerce is carried on by American vessels directly from the place of production to the place of consumption, without touching at any American port, and in consequence it is not included in the estimates submitted to Congress. This important part of American trade cannot be ascertained, and then very imperfectly, but by a long and laborious investigation, for which purpose it would be necessary to examine the estimates of imports and exports from India, China, Brazil, Cuba, the ports of the Mediterranean, the Hanse Towns, and the north seas of Europe, between which the communications are frequently effected by American vessels. It must be understood that the tables furnished by the government of the Union express but a part of the elements of the prosperity of this new country. The United States have found in their fertile soil, their vigilant industry,

and in the happy effects of their constitution, the means of furnishing, for foreign consumption, an enormous mass of natural products. During the decennial period materials were produced to the amount of

3,200,000,000 lbs. of cotton	2,032,000,000
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91,000,000 " tobacco	335,000,000
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Corn, rice, flour, wheat, biscuit, etc.	626,000,000
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making a total of nearly 3,000,000,000 of francs, gathered directly from the soil.

The importance of these products, the fisheries, timber, &c., render less notable the tardiness in the development of manufactures. The employment, however, of machinery, and the advantage of having the materials directly at hand, have already increased the exportation of cotton goods to an amount, during the decennial period, exceeding 88,000,000 of francs, of which near twelve millions were for the year 1835-36.

SECTION VI.—GENERAL VIEW OF THE COMMERCIAL PROSPECTS OF FRANCE.

Statistics are not a dead-letter from which no instruction is to be drawn. We must, however, guard against too absolute conclusions in view of the difficulty we have in comparing and authenticating our facts. It is also necessary to take the precaution of examining the circumstances accompanying or following the periods we have under consideration. Thus, the movement of commercial affairs in 1836 has given rise to the greatest errors. It has been taken as an exemplification of the principle of permanent increase, whereas it ought to be looked upon as a year of extraordinary excitement and immoderate overtrading throughout the globe. General commerce ought to augment with the civilized populations, and the increase of their means and appliances of industry, but it would be very erroneous to estimate any such progress by a comparison of 1826 and 1836. We have seen how much the affairs of this year have been modified by a combination in the years 1837 and '38. Not that we attach any such great importance to the grouping of years in periods which we have adopted, we simply follow this method because we think it serves very well to express the influence of historical events upon the progress of commerce, and to reduce, by an average of several years, the liability to mistakes if we examine the facts of only one.

The backward movement that took place during the years 1837 and '38 has already ceased, and will probably be followed by a new era of progression. Is France ready to join in and to profit by this change? To resolve this question it is necessary to return to a consideration of some of the details of the statistics we have already presented. The laudations that a nation may bestow upon itself frequently have but a slight foundation, and are useful only to cover and conceal the complaints of that portion of society who have a just perception of the evils that exist, and that ought to be remedied. Let us then, without any self-glorying assertions, examine into the true indications of the progress of our commerce and our prospects of future prosperity. Let us see what we have to expect; and in doing so, let it be borne in mind that the comparisons we have to institute are between France, with a population of thirty-three millions, and Great Britain with twenty-four millions, and the United States with thirteen millions.

Imports, despite the false theories of political economy, are the sign of

the wealth and industry of a country. In France they may be embraced in three divisions,—first, those employed in satisfying the wants of consumers; second, those that are reshipped for foreign countries; and third, the balance, when there is any, that goes to form a reserve in *entrepôt*, or in transit.

1. Foreign products consumed—

From 1827 to 1829, . . .	1,351 millions of francs.
From 1830 to 1832, . . .	1,368 " "
From 1833 to 1835, . . .	1,515 " "

2. Exported to foreign ports—

From 1827 to 1829, . . .	298 millions of francs.
From 1830 to 1832, . . .	471 " "
From 1833 to 1835, . . .	669 " "

and it has therefore more than doubled.

3. The reserve in *entrepôt* has augmented—

From 1827 to 1829, . . .	141 millions of francs.
and it has decreased—	
From 1830 to 1832, . . .	36 millions of francs.

From 1833 to 1835, . . .	10 " "
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Such is the division of French imports, which together amounted—

From 1827 to 1829, . . to .	1,790 millions of francs.
From 1830 to 1832, . . to .	1,804 " "
From 1833 to 1835, . . to .	2,174 " "

We see from this that the increase of French importations is almost wholly owing to the increase of that part which is resold to foreign countries:—

The importations into England have been—

	<i>Official Value. Francs.</i>	<i>Resold to Foreign Nations.</i>	<i>Consumed in England.</i>
From 1827 to 1829, . .	3,374 millions.	766 millions.	2,608 millions.
From 1830 to 1832, . .	3,542 "	765 "	2,776 "
From 1833 to 1835, . .	3,561 "	861 "	2,700 "

The imports into the United States were—

	<i>Official Value. Francs.</i>	<i>Resold to Foreign Nations.</i>	<i>Consumed in the United States.</i>
From 1827 to 1829, . .	1,273 millions.	324 millions.	949 millions.
From 1830 to 1832, . .	1,444 "	304 "	1,138 "
From 1833 to 1835, . .	2,019 "	334 "	1,685 "

The exportations of products of the soil and of native industry were—

	<i>France.</i>	<i>Great Britain.</i>	<i>United States.</i>
	<i>Official Value.—Francs.</i>	<i>Declared Value.</i>	<i>Real Value.</i>
From 1827 to 1829, . .	1,522 millions.	4,063 millions.	868 millions.
From 1830 to 1832, . .	1,416 "	4,708 "	965 "
From 1833 to 1835, . .	1,647 "	5,580 "	1,326 "

We must not forget to remark that the precious metals are not included in the documents of France or Great Britain, and that the official valuation surpasses by a considerable proportion the real value.

In the exportations, the foreign merchandise reshipped is also included. But can this commerce, which has increased so rapidly, be said to belong to France? 'Tis true it takes place on our territory, and helps to swell our estimate, but if we look to the bottom of the subject we will find that we have very little interest in it; that it goes on under our eyes, but without any of us taking any part in it. Other nations have found our geographical position commodious, and have made our territory a rendezvous where they traffic among themselves; and our laws in relation to the transit of goods have given rise to a kind of commerce, of which the variations are owing to causes entirely foreign to our country.

The United States, England, Switzerland, Germany, Prussia, and the East Indies, have sent to us articles not entering into our consumption, amounting, in the period from 1827 to 1829, to 146 millions of francs, and from 1833 to 1835, 334 millions. On the other hand, our exportation of articles of foreign growth amounted, for the United States, Switzerland, Germany, and the Sardinian States alone, to ninety-five millions, from 1827 to 1829, and 297 millions from 1833 to 1835. This increase of the commerce of exchanges through our territory is a remarkable fact, but what renders it particularly worthy of observation is the certainty that all this great trade is carried on without the concurrence of our citizens, that they participate in it neither with their capital or with their ships. Switzerland demands from the United States and England, cotton, indigo, and other commodities. The United States, on their side, resort to the labor of the Swiss and Germans for silks, ribbons, linens, and cloths, which form the lading of their packets at Havre. All this kind of trade unregistered in our official statements and documents, gives a false appearance of life to our commercial relations, and augments their importance by hundreds of millions. The exportation of the products of our own soil in the mean time has increased so little, that if we make allowance for the difference between the official valuation and the real value, we shall find perhaps that we have rested stationary for the nine years.

It remains to examine an important branch, that of shipping, and to consider the comparative progress of navigation foreign to the country, in France, England, and the United States.

	ENTERED.					
	France.	Great Britain.			United States.	
	National.	Foreign.	National.	Foreign.	National.	For'gn.
	Thousands of Tons.					
From 1827 to 1829, .	1,030	1,585	6,365	2,097	2,660	419
From 1830 to 1832, .	1,073	1,845	6,783	2,273	2,840	807
From 1833 to 1835, .	1,160	2,125	6,925	2,462	3,539	1,706
CLEARED.						
From 1827 to 1829, .	990	1,320	5,957	2,106	2,822	415
From 1830 to 1832, .	932	1,195	6,632	2,306	2,919	793
From 1832 to 1835, .	1,076	1,467	6,960	2,516	3,676	1,705

The figures speak for themselves, and demonstrate that we are resting stationary, while our rivals are advancing. But there are some other points which, if examined, will leave no doubt upon the mind of any one. French shipping is either reserved and exclusive, as that to our colonies or the fisheries, or it is shared in common with foreign commerce, with only the protection of the differential duties of the customhouse. As to

this last, in which is to be found the proof of our commercial force and spirit, we shall be pardoned if we recur once more to the figures which express its condition.

SHIPPING ENTERED.

		<i>French Flag.</i>	<i>Foreign Flag.</i>
From 1827 to 1829	.	553,375	1,584,703
1830 " 1832	.	614,216	1,845,115
1833 " 1835	.	679,864	2,125,686

SHIPPING CLEARED.

From 1827 to 1829	.	472,215	1,320,589
1830 " 1832	.	470,785	1,195,203
1833 " 1835	.	581,576	1,467,051

That is to say, that in the relations of France with other countries, our vessels are employed only to a little more than one quarter of the whole.

After a quarter of a century of peace, can any thing be imagined more deplorable than such a result? Still more, if we analyze the causes which have enabled us to preserve even this fourth part of the shipping which enters and clears from our ports, we shall find that we have been compelled to have recourse, as far as England is concerned, to a "reciprocity of commercial repulsion," to protect our shipping in the India trade, by duties equivalent to several times the amount of the freights, and to encourage voyages to the eastern islands, by the most exorbitant immunities; which, on the other hand, have destroyed our commerce with Hayti, and perhaps deprived the inhabitants of that island of the means of discharging their obligations to us.

The prosperity of the merchant marine depends upon the commercial progress of a nation, for in the present day every nation employs as much as possible its own vessels in its own trade. Without a merchant marine there can be no military marine; and this last, as we have seen at Navarino, Algiers, in the Tagus, and lately in South America, is one of the most sure bases of political preponderance and power. Well may we be astonished at the neglect that has been manifested, particularly since the revolution of 1830, in the councils of the nation, for our true commercial interests. Such, however, are the fruits of the perseverance with which the system adopted under the empire, and carefully preserved by succeeding governments, has been followed. The supporters of it pretend that the internal prosperity of the country is ensured by the prohibition of the products of foreign labor. They do not seek to encourage exportation, but imagine they have gained every thing, when they have annihilated some branch of importation. They please themselves with exaggerated praises bestowed upon the industry of the country, and disguise the fact that we are being driven from the markets of the world. That while ignorant of the progress of our rivals, we are neglecting the new duties our country is called upon to fulfil. It is evidently a decline not to march at an equal pace with other nations, and such undoubtedly is our position in respect to that portion of commerce of which we speak.

We have had occasion, in an article in a former number of this review, to dilate upon the ideas which were excited by the grand ceremonies of the exhibition of the products of French industry—the fair of 1834. Since then, Charles Dupin, speaking in the name of the committee to whom was intrusted the decision upon the respective merits of the articles exhibited,

has, in a report which combines the highest scientific information with profound technical knowledge, set forth in the most forcible manner the importance of the manufacturing interests. Doing full justice to a work of so much interest, and fully appreciating the impartiality of the committee, we cannot but regret that they did not interrogate the manufacturers as to the place that their products occupy in the consumption of foreigners and their influence in swelling our exportations. That would furnish the true touchstone of our progress and the measure of our success.

After the exhibition followed an examination. There the same manufacturers who had demanded a recompense for their progress, came confessing their inability to compete with foreigners, and that for this unfortunate state of things there can only be found a remedy in the continuation of protection amounting nearly to prohibition. The government could not struggle against the general wish shared by men of every variety of political opinion, and our manufacturers have quietly gone to sleep, satisfied with the consumption secured to them of thirty-four millions of inhabitants. Our industry has not felt the slightest anxiety at seeing pass through our territory in 1836, 332 millions of francs in foreign products. Of this, some 180 millions were in manufactured articles. What are the causes that prevent us from furnishing this amount? Why is the preference given to Switzerland, Prussia, &c.? What puts these countries in a state to excel us? Nobody knows. And yet we have no want of men who laud us instead of warning us. We rest in the rear of the march pursued by other nations; and if we perceive that, after having bought the flax, they come to us to sell the linen also, we can find the only remedy in a prohibition of such product, instead of seeking some method of making it at a lower price. The production of the beet-root is regarded as a conquest, protected as it has to be by duties amounting to one hundred per cent upon the prices that we pay our colonies for the sugar we buy of them. We abandon the cultivation of many rich products for that which will properly develop itself only in a hot-house, and which, sooner or later, will exhibit itself a miserable deception to those who have delivered themselves up to it. This epoch will arrive when the government shall have discovered that there are other interests besides those of the landholders, for the mere cultivators are disinterested in the affair. It will arrive when the commerce with foreign countries, the marine, and the power of France, shall have attracted the regard of the Chambers and the Ministry, when they will be willing to abandon the absurd system of encouraging on the one hand by bounties what they destroy on the other by prohibitive duties.

Not that the government is without an idea of the importance of preserving a naval force. It is with the view of creating a supply of sailors that bounties are allowed upon the whale and cod fisheries. But they ought to count more upon the trade of our ports with the colonies we possess, and exercise a due influence in preserving them in a state of prosperity. They ought to think, in relation to them, of what they have done for the coasting trade, that important nursery of seamen, which has been greatly benefited by a recent ordinance removing the tonnage duties of coasting vessels, and extending their licenses to a year. This measure is one that we cannot too much praise, but it cannot exert any influence upon our grand commerce.

The four sugar colonies gave employment to nearly one hundred thousand tons of shipping, and from five to six thousand sailors. Their trade,

reserved exclusively to our own country, has amounted to an average value of from fifty to sixty millions of francs, and it has been decreasing for several years. We have ceased in France to comprehend the value of these establishments, and we look with contempt upon the fine roadsteads of Fort Royal, where France, at it were at home, could collect and shelter the fleets capable of making her name respected upon distant shores. Without colonies, the whale and cod fisheries will become nearly useless. We will just glance at the facts having relation to this branch of navigation, which has been for a long time so highly protected.

The whale-fishery employed on an average from 1827 to 1829, 200 seamen yearly, and produced 13,000 quintals of oil. From 1833 to 1835 the numbers of the crews were raised to 600 men, and the produce amounted to 30,000 annually.

The cod-fishery employed 9,000 men on an average from 1827 to 1829, and 10,000 in 1833-35. The produce amounted to an average of 55,000 quintals, of which 20,000 went to Spain, and ports in the Mediterranean, and the balance was taken to our sugar colonies. These colonies, besides the 35,000 quintals we send them, receive the cargoes which our fishermen take directly from Newfoundland, and in return for which they freight with colonial commodities for the northern country. Their total consumption of the products of the fisheries amounts to 80,000 quintals per annum.

The state allows, under various conditions, to those who undertake fishing voyages, a bounty equivalent to between three and four hundred francs a year for each man. In other words, the state pays the wages of the men and leaves to the owners the profits of the voyage. In some voyages of long duration, as in the whale-fishery, the bounties amounted to from 1,400 to 1,500 francs for each seaman. Such great sacrifices have an object, and this object has been once obtained, for without the resources which were found in the sailors engaged in the fisheries, the expedition to Algiers could not have taken place.

If the fisheries, and particularly the cod-fishery, has need of the aid of government to subsist, it has equally a need of a market for its products. Now foreign countries take scarcely a fifth, and it is only by submitting to exorbitant duties, which at any moment may be changed into prohibition, that we retain the precarious and trifling market in Spain. The British Parliament have been recently occupied with the remonstrances of the people interested against the proposed increase of duty by the Spanish authorities, but it does not seem that all the skill of Mr. Villiers has been able to obtain any melioration; and if Spain quiets her internal dissensions, her first care will be to strengthen her system of commercial repulsion, of which we have given her the example. We can place dependence only upon our colonies for the consumption of the products of our fisheries, the existence of which depends upon them. United, these two inseparable branches make two fifths of our whole navigation, and under this point of view we are already so poor that we ought to dread the approach of the time when an additional reduction will be effected. But with the ideas that at present predominate, we have no confidence that our feeble efforts can avail to avert a loss so disastrous. It is necessary, if truth is to triumph, that voices more powerful should be raised in her behalf.

We are far from having exhausted this subject. We have pointed out the evil. Colonies are essential to a commercial people. As for the United States, divided into two grand regions, one of these regions is the

colony of the other : one, at the south, produces ; the other traffics, exchanges, and exports. Great Britain is assured of renewed resources in the east, but she has also made sacrifices enough in favor of the West Indies to enable us to judge of the value she attaches to the future prosperity of those fine islands. A people—less powerful, but of great perseverance never wrongly directed—the Dutch, haved turned their whole attention towards Java, nearly the only important possession they have preserved. In 1826 the commerce of that island, entered and cleared, amounted to fifteen millions of florins, or nearly thirty-two millions of francs. In 1836 it had increased to forty-one millions of florins, or eighty-seven millions of francs. In the same space of time our commerce with our colonies, including the fisheries, remained absolutely stationary, and limited to sixty-eight millions of francs, the official value of the entries, and about fifty millions value of the clearances.

It is impossible to have power without a military marine, a military marine without commerce and merchant shipping, merchant shipping without colonies and the fisheries, and lastly, colonies without doing something for their interests and their existence. Some will say we can do without all that, but for ourselves we have not the courage to make such a declaration.

ART. II.—PROGRESS OF POPULATION AND WEALTH IN THE UNITED STATES IN FIFTY YEARS,

AS EXHIBITED BY THE DECENTNIAL CENSUS TAKEN IN THAT PERIOD.

CHAPTER I.**INTRODUCTION—THE CENSUS OF 1790.**

As soon as the framers of the Federal Constitution had decided on giving to each state a representation in Congress in proportion to its numbers, and that direct taxes, whenever resorted to, should be in the same proportion, it became necessary to take an exact enumeration of the people. Such an enumeration was accordingly directed by the Constitution ; and, as it was known that the progress of population greatly varied, and would continue to vary in the several states, it was further provided that similar enumerations should be taken “within every subsequent term of ten years.”*

This census of the people at stated periods, which was thus subordinate to a particular purpose, was soon found to have substantial merits of its own. It has furnished an authentic document which is invaluable to the

* The provision of the Constitution referred to is in the second section of the first article, and is in these words : “ Representatives and direct taxes shall be apportioned among the several states which may be included within this Union, according to their respective numbers, which shall be determined by adding to the whole number of free persons, including those bound to service for a term of years, and, excluding Indians not taxed, three fifths of all other persons, [meaning slaves.] The actual enumeration shall be made within three years after the first meeting of the Congress of the United States, and within every subsequent term of ten years, in such manner as they shall by law direct.”

philosopher and political economist, as well as to the statesman and legislator. By the evidence it affords they are enabled to deduce truths of sufficient importance to justify the trouble and expense it involves, though it were not necessary to the just distribution of political power, and to equality of taxation; and its benefits became so obvious, that the most enlightened nations of Europe have followed the example, and now take periodical censuses of their inhabitants solely for the valuable knowledge they convey. As the numbers of a people are at once the source and the index of its wealth, these enumerations enable its statesmen to see whether national prosperity is advancing, stationary, or retrograde. They can compare one period with another, as well as different parts of the country with each other, and having this satisfactory evidence of the facts, they can more successfully investigate the causes, and apply the appropriate remedies, where remedy is practicable.

They also furnish occasions for obtaining other statistical information on subjects that materially concern civilization and national prosperity. The same means taken to ascertain the numbers of the people may be used to distribute them into classes, according to sex, ages, and occupations, and different races, where such diversity exists. Accordingly, the United States, and all the European nations who have profited by our example, have thus improved their respective enumerations of their people. Six censuses have now been taken in this country, and in each successive one, some new list has added to our knowledge of the progress of social improvement. By their aid, speculations in political philosophy of great moment and interest may be made to rest on the unerring logic of numbers.

This knowledge, so indispensable to every government which would found its legislation on authentic facts, instead of conjecture, is peculiarly important to us. Our changes are both greater and more rapid than those of any other country. A region covered with its primeval forests is, in the course of one generation, covered with productive farms and comfortable dwellings, and in the same brief space villages are seen to shoot up into wealthy and populous cities. The elements of our population are, moreover, composed of different races and conditions of civil freedom, whose relative increase is watched with interest by every reflecting mind, however he may view that diversity of condition, or whatever he may think of the comparative merit of the two races.

It is the purpose of the following pages to profit by the information which the several censuses have furnished, so as not only to make us better acquainted with the progress of our Federal Republic during the half century it has existed, but also to give us a glimpse of the yet more important future which awaits us.

Before we consider the inferences to be deduced from all the censuses together, let us take a brief notice of each of them in succession.

The first census was taken in 1790, and its enumeration referred to the 1st of August of that year. It distributed the population under the following heads, viz:

- 1st. Free white males, sixteen years of age and upwards.
- 2d. The same under sixteen.
- 3d. Free white females of all ages.
- 4th. Slaves.
- 5th. All other persons; by which was meant free persons of color.

The result is exhibited in the following

TABLE OF THE POPULATION OF THE UNITED STATES ON THE 1ST OF AUGUST
1790.

<i>States.</i>	<i>White Males of 16 and upwards</i>	<i>White Males under 16.</i>	<i>White Females.</i>	<i>All other persons.</i>	<i>Slaves.</i>	<i>Total.</i>
*Maine,	24,384	24,748	46,870	538	96,540
New Hampshire,.....	36,089	34,851	70,171	630	158	141,899
Massachusetts,.....	95,383	87,289	190,582	5,463	378,717
Rhode Island,.....	16,033	15,811	32,845	3,469	952	69,110
Connecticut,.....	60,527	54,492	117,562	2,801	2,759	238,141
Vermont,.....	22,419	22,327	40,398	255	17	85,416
New York,.....	83,700	78,122	152,320	4,654	21,324	340,120
New Jersey,.....	45,251	41,416	83,287	2,762	11,423	184,139
Pennsylvania,.....	110,788	106,948	206,363	6,537	3,737	434,373
Delaware,.....	11,783	12,143	22,384	3,899	8,887	59,096
Maryland,.....	55,915	51,339	101,395	8,043	103,036	319,728
Virginia,.....	110,934	116,135	215,046	12,766	293,427	748,308
North Carolina,.....	69,998	77,506	140,710	4,975	100,572	393,751
South Carolina,.....	35,576	37,722	66,888	1,801	107,094	249,073
Georgia,.....	13,103	14,044	25,739	398	29,264	82,548
Kentucky,.....	15,154	17,057	28,922	114	11,830	73,077
Tennessee,.....	6,271	10,377	15,365	361	3,417	35,791
	813,298	802,327	1,556,839	59,466	697,897	3,929,827

* Maine was then a part of Massachusetts, and so continued until 1820, but as its census was taken separately, it has always properly held a separate place in statistical tables.

By this census the population of the United States was first ascertained by actual enumeration, together with its several parts, white and colored, free and servile, and the comparative numbers of the different states. As the result somewhat disappointed expectation, the census was supposed by many to be inaccurate, and the assumed error was imputed, I know not on what evidence, to the popular notion that the people were thus counted for the purpose of being taxed, and that not a few had, on this account, understated to the deputy marshals the number of persons in their families.* But the general conformity of this census with those subsequently taken, in all points where the discrepancy cannot be satisfactorily explained, shows that the errors could not have been considerable.

The census showed that the population of this country had been overrated at the revolution, for supposing the rate of increase to have been the same before the census as after it, the people of the thirteen colonies, at the time of the stamp act, fell considerably short of two millions, and at the declaration of independence, they did not reach to two and a half millions.

The items of the first census were unfortunately too few to furnish much materials for comparison. The most important facts it discloses, are the following :

* It is certain that this supposed source of error was credited by General Washington, usually so cautious, and almost unerring in his judgments, and that on the faith of it, he expected that the second census would show a much larger amount of population than proved to be the fact.

Of the whole population, the whites were	3,172,464	= 80.73 per cent.
The free colored,	59,466	= 1.51 " "
The slaves,	697,897	= 17.76 " "
	3,929,827	100.

Consequently, the whole free population,
white and colored, were 82.24 " "
And the whole slave population, 17.76 " "
The number of white males to that of the females was as 103.8 to 100 ;
or for every 10,000 males there were 9,636 females.

It deserves to be remarked that the age of sixteen, which was adopted by Congress to divide the male population into two parts, with a view probably to ascertain the number of men capable of bearing arms, made an almost equal division between them. Thus, of the whole male white population, the part over sixteen is 50.3 per cent, and the part under sixteen 49.7. The age of twenty was thus found to divide the male population of England into two equal parts, by the census taken in that country in 1821.

It will be perceived that, at this period, every state in the Union, except Massachusetts, contained slaves. But, as in several the number was few, and slavery was there subsequently abolished, in tracing the progress of the slave population, it has been thought best to confine our views to those in which slavery still exists, and where it constitutes a larger part of the population.

The proportion of the white, the free colored, and the slave population may be seen in the following table :—

States.	Whole Pop'lation.	Whites.	Free Col'd.	Slaves.	PER CENTAGE OF		
					Whit's	F. Col.	Slaves.
Delaware.....	59,096	46,034	4,177	8,887	77.9	7.1	15.
Maryland.....	319,728	208,649	8,043	103,036	65.3	2.5	32.2
Virginia.....	748,308	442,115	12,766	293,427	59.1	1.7	39.2
North Carolina.....	393,751	288,204	4,975	100,572	73.2	1.3	25.5
South Carolina.....	249,073	140,178	1,801	107,094	56.3	.7	43.
Georgia	82,848	52,886	398	29,264	64.1	.5	35.4
Kentucky.....	73,077	61,613	114	11,350	84.3	.2	15.5
Tennessee.....	35,791	32,013	361	3,417	89.4	1.	9.6
	1,961,374	1,271,692	32,635	657,047	64.8	1.7	33.5

CHAPTER II.

THE CENSUS OF 1800—BEING THE SECOND ENUMERATION UNDER THE CONSTITUTION.

The act of Congress which directed the second enumeration, added some new divisions of the white population to those of the first census. It discriminated between the sexes, and it distributed each under the five following heads, viz :

- Those persons who were under ten years of age.
- " " ten, and under sixteen.
- " " sixteen, and under twenty-six.
- " " twenty-six, and under forty-five.
- " " forty-five and upwards.

The result is exhibited in the following table :—

TABLE OF THE POPULATION OF THE UNITED STATES ON THE 1ST OF AUGUST, 1800.

STATES AND TERRITORIES.	WHITE MALES.						WHITE FEMALES.						TOTAL.
	Under 10.	10 and under 16.	16 and under 26.	26 and under 45.	45 and upward.	Under 10.	10 and under 16.	16 and under 26.	26 and under 45.	45 and upward.	Free col'd persons.	Slaves.	
Maine.....	27,970	12,305	12,900	15,318	8,339	26,899	11,338	13,295	14,496	8,041	818	151,719
New Hampshire	30,594	14,881	16,379	17,589	11,715	29,871	14,193	17,153	18,381	12,142	856	8	183,762
Vermont.....	29,420	12,046	13,242	16,544	8,076	28,272	11,366	12,606	15,287	7,049	557	154,465
Massachusetts	63,646	32,498	38,305	39,729	31,316	60,920	30,674	40,491	43,833	35,381	6,452	423,245
Rhode Island.....	9,945	5,352	5,889	5,785	4,887	9,524	5,026	6,463	6,919	5,647	3,304	381	69,122
Connecticut	37,946	19,408	21,683	23,180	18,976	35,736	18,218	23,561	25,186	20,827	5,330	951	251,002
New York.....	100,367	44,273	49,275	61,594	31,943	95,473	39,876	48,176	56,411	28,651	10,374	20,343	586,756
New Jersey.....	34,780	15,859	16,301	19,956	12,629	32,622	14,827	17,018	19,533	11,600	4,442	1,207	211,949
Pennsylvania.....	103,226	46,161	54,626	59,333	38,485	99,624	43,789	53,974	53,846	33,394	14,561	1,706	602,365
Delaware.....	8,250	4,437	5,121	5,012	2,213	7,628	4,277	5,543	4,981	2,390	8,268	6,153	64,273
Maryland.....	35,852	17,392	21,934	22,778	13,394	33,796	16,437	22,367	21,170	11,906	19,587	105,635	341,548
Dist' of Columbia.....	1,588	671	1,178	1,332	539	1,577	663	1,027	1,028	463	783	3,244	14,093
Virginia.....	92,438	40,500	48,708	50,262	30,221	87,323	38,835	50,730	47,810	27,453	20,124	345,796	880,200
North Carolina.....	63,118	27,073	31,560	31,209	18,688	59,074	25,874	32,989	30,665	17,514	7,043	133,296	478,103
South Carolina.....	37,411	16,156	17,761	19,344	10,244	34,664	15,857	18,145	17,236	9,437	3,185	146,151	345,591
Georgia	19,841	8,470	9,787	10,325	4,957	18,407	7,914	9,248	8,835	3,894	1,019	59,404	162,101
Kentucky.....	37,274	14,045	15,705	17,699	9,233	34,949	13,433	15,524	14,934	7,075	741	40,343	220,955
Tennessee.....	19,227	7,194	8,282	8,352	4,125	18,450	7,042	8,554	6,992	3,491	309	13,584	105,602
Ohio.....	9,362	3,647	4,636	4,833	1,955	8,644	3,353	3,861	3,342	1,395	337	45,365
Indiana.....	854	347	645	780	262	791	280	324	393	115	163	135	4,875
Mississippi.....	1,009	356	482	780	290	953	376	352	416	165	182	3,489	8,850
	764,118	343,071	393,156	431,589	262,487	725,197	323,648	401,499	411,694	248,030	108,395	893,041	5,305,925

This census, besides informing us of the actual numbers then in the United States, made us further acquainted with the rate of our increase, and which proved to be somewhat greater than it had, on the authority of Dr. Franklin's opinion, been previously estimated.

The whole population was thus distributed:

White males	2,204,421
" females	2,100,068
	4,304,489
Free colored	108,395
Slaves	893,041
	5,305,925
Total	

The increase in ten years, was—

Of the whole population	35.02 per cent.
" whites	35.68 "
" free colored	82.28 "
" slaves	27.96 "
" whole colored population	32.23 "

It must be recollect that the white population was increased by immigration, and the free colored by emancipation. The increase from the first source was estimated, on such imperfect data as he possessed, at 60,000 in the ten years from 1790 to 1800. But since an account has been taken of the foreign emigrants who arrive in our sea-ports, as well as from the intrinsic evidence afforded by the enumerations themselves, we must regard his estimate as much too low. The number of refugees from St. Domingo was known to make a considerable addition, at that period, to the steady stream of European emigration. The accession to our numbers from this source, instead of about 1½ per cent, as Dr. Seybert supposed, was probably not short of 3 per cent.

The distribution of the three classes of our population, compared with that of the preceding census, may be seen in the following table:—

	By the Census of 1790.	By the Census of 1800.
The proportion of the white population.....	80.73 per cent.	81.12 per cent.
" " free colored.....	1.51 " "	2.05 " "
" " slaves	17.56 " "	16.83 " "
	100.	100.
Consequently, the proportion of the whole free popu- lation was.....	82.24	83.17
" " whole colored.....	19.27	18.88

The age of sixteen divided the white population, as at the preceding census, into two nearly equal parts, and the excess of those under sixteen was yet less than in 1790. Thus,

The number of white males under sixteen was	1,117,169
" " females " "	1,038,845
	2,156,014
The number of white males over sixteen	1,087,252
" " females " "	1,038,845
	2,126,097

The white population is thus distributed according to ages, viz :

Those under the age of ten	34.6 per cent.
“ between ten and sixteen	15.5 “
“ between sixteen and twenty-six	18.4 “
“ between twenty-six and forty-five	19.6 “
“ forty-five and upwards	11.9 “

which shows the numbers under and above sixteen to be yet nearer than 50.1 to 49.9.

The males of the whole white population exceeded the females in the proportion of 100 to 95.3, but there is great diversity in the proportion between the sexes at different ages. Thus,

Of those under ten years of age,* the proportion of males	100 to 94.9
to females was as	{
“ between ten and sixteen	“ 94.3
“ between sixteen and twenty-six	“ 102.1
“ between twenty-six and forty-five	“ 95.4
“ over forty-five	“ 94.5

It appears from the preceding statement, that, notwithstanding the greater number of males born, yet from the greater number also who go abroad as travellers or seafaring men, or who die from casualties, the females between sixteen and twenty-six exceed the males between the same ages; and it may be presumed that they would maintain the excess in the after periods of life, but for the foreign emigrants, who consisted, at that time, far more of males than females. The small gain of the males on the females between ten and sixteen is probably to be referred to the same cause; though a part may be ascribed perhaps to the greater mortality of females at that period of life.

Although in every state of the Union the males, under ten, and between that age and sixteen, exceed the females, yet in the subsequent ages there is a great diversity among the states, for in all the New England states, except Vermont, the excess of females over sixteen is so great as to outweigh the excess of males under sixteen; and thus make the whole number of females exceed that of males; as may be thus seen, viz :

In Maine the white males were	74,069	the females	76,832
New Hampshire, “	91,158	“	91,740
Massachusetts, “	205,494	“	211,299
Rhode Island, “	31,858	“	33,581
Connecticut, “	121,193	“	123,528

In Vermont, however, the males of every age exceed the females. This diversity is doubtless owing principally to the seafaring habits of the people in the five first-mentioned states, and partly to the great number of emigrants which they send forth to the states south and west of them, who are or were mostly males. Vermont, on the other hand, must have gained greatly by immigration, as its population was nearly doubled in ten years, and thus its males, even between sixteen and twenty-six, somewhat exceeded its females.

The number of white females between sixteen and forty-five was

* Dr. Seybert, in his Statistics, p. 44, states, that of the persons under ten, the females exceeded the males. It is due however to him to remark, that while his computations appear to be accurate, according to the data he possessed, he has often been misled by the errors in the first publications of the first and second census, which a more careful revision of their returns has subsequently shown.

813,193, equal to 18.9 per cent of the whole white population; and this may be regarded as the ordinary proportion of married and marriagable women in this country, though it will of course be somewhat affected by a change in the rate of increase.

The increase of the whole colored population, which neither gains nor loses much by migration, gives us very nearly the ratio of increase by natural multiplication. Supposing this ratio to be the same with the two races, then the further gain of the white population must be referred to immigration. By this rule, the accession to our numbers by foreign emigrants would be in ten years 3.45 per cent, equal to the difference between 35.68 and 32.23 per cent. If however some deduction be made from the seeming ratio of increase of 32.23, on account of the small number of Africans imported into South Carolina and Georgia between 1790 and 1800, and we further assume, as many do, that the natural increase of the slaves is greater than that of the whites, then our decennial gain from immigration must be set down at yet more than in the above estimate.

The second census showed a very great difference in the rate of increase among the different states. Thus, while the population of Georgia and Vermont nearly doubled, and that of Kentucky and Tennessee trebled in the ten years, that of Connecticut, of Delaware, of Maryland and Rhode Island increased less than 10 per cent. The difference was caused almost wholly by the flow of the population from the states where it was most dense to those where it was least so.

Table showing the number and proportions of whites, free colored, and slaves, in the slaveholding states, on the 1st of August, 1800:

STATES AND TERRITORIES.	Total population.	Whites.	Free colored.	Slaves.	PER CENTAGE OF		
					Wh'es.	F. Col.	Slaves.
Delaware.....	64,273	49,852	8,268	6,153	77.5	12.9	9.6
Maryland.....	341,548	216,326	19,587	105,635	63.3	5.7	30.9
Dist. of Columbia..	14,093	10,066	783	3,244	71.6	5.4	23.
Virginia.....	880,200	514,280	20,124	345,796	58.4	2.3	39.3
North Carolina.....	478,103	337,764	7,043	133,296	70.7	2.4	27.9
South Carolina.....	345,591	196,255	3,185	146,151	57.7	.9	42.3
Georgia.....	162,101	101,678	1,019	59,404	62.7	.7	36.6
Kentucky.....	220,955	179,871	741	40,343	80.5	1.2	18.3
Tennessee.....	105,602	91,709	309	13,584	86.8	.3	12.9
Mississippi Ter....	8,850	5,179	182	3,489	57.9	2.7	39.4
TOTAL.....	2,621,316	1,702,980	61,241	857,095	65.	2.3	32.7

It thus appears that, in the slaveholding states, the white population had gained a little on the whole colored, and yet more on the slaves, who from being somewhat more than a third of the whole population, were now somewhat less.

CHAPTER III.

THE CENSUS OF 1810, BEING THE THIRD ENUMERATION UNDER THE CONSTITUTION.

The population was distributed under the same heads by this census, as by the census of 1800; but in addition to the population in the former territory of the United States, it comprehends that which was contained in the settled parts of Louisiana, which was purchased from France in 1803. The accession to our numbers from this source was about 77,000. The following table shows the whole population of the United States on the 1st of June, 1810.

POPULATION OF THE UNITED STATES ON THE 1ST OF JUNE, 1810.

STATES AND TERRITORIES.	WHITE MALES.						WHITE FEMALES.						Total.
	Under 10.	10 and under 16.	16 and under 26.	26 and under 45.	Over 45.	under 10.	10 and under 16.	16 and under 26.	26 and under 45.	Over 45.	Free col'd persons.	Slaves.	
Maine,.....	41,273	18,463	20,403	22,079	13,291	39,131	17,827	21,290	21,464	12,515	969	...	228,705
New Hampshire,.....	34,084	17,840	18,865	20,531	14,462	32,313	17,259	20,792	22,040	15,204	970	...	214,360
Vermont,.....	38,062	18,347	19,678	20,441	13,053	36,613	17,339	21,181	20,792	11,457	750	...	217,713
Massachusetts,.....	68,930	34,964	45,018	45,854	34,976	66,881	33,191	46,366	49,229	39,894	6,737	...	472,040
Rhode Island,.....	10,735	5,554	7,250	6,765	5,539	10,555	5,389	7,520	7,635	6,372	3,609	108	77,031
Connecticut,.....	37,812	20,498	23,880	23,699	20,484	35,913	18,931	26,073	26,293	22,696	6,453	310	262,042
New York,.....	165,933	73,702	85,779	94,882	53,985	157,945	85,139	85,805	46,718	25,333	15,017	959,049	
New Jersey,.....	37,814	18,914	21,231	21,394	16,004	36,063	17,787	21,184	21,359	15,109	7,843	10,851	245,555
Pennsylvania,.....	138,464	62,506	74,203	74,193	52,100	131,769	60,943	75,960	70,826	45,840	22,492	795	810,091
Dalaware,.....	9,632	4,480	5,150	5,866	2,878	9,041	4,370	5,541	5,527	2,876	13,136	4,177	72,674
Maryland,.....	38,613	18,489	22,688	25,255	15,165	36,137	17,833	23,875	22,908	14,154	33,927	111,502	380,546
D. of Columbia,.....	2,479	1,158	1,520	2,107	866	2,538	1,192	1,653	1,734	832	2,549	5,395	24,023
Virginia,.....	97,777	42,919	51,473	52,567	35,302	90,715	42,207	54,899	51,163	32,957	30,570	392,518	974,622
North Carolina,.....	68,036	30,321	34,630	34,456	21,189	65,421	30,053	37,933	33,944	20,427	10,266	168,824	555,500
South Carolina,.....	39,669	17,193	20,933	20,488	11,304	37,497	16,629	20,583	18,974	10,926	4,554	196,365	415,115
Georgia,.....	28,002	11,951	14,085	14,372	7,435	26,283	11,237	13,461	12,350	6,238	1,801	105,218	252,433
Kentucky,.....	65,134	26,804	29,772	29,553	17,542	60,776	25,743	29,511	25,920	13,482	1,713	80,561	406,511
Tennessee,.....	44,494	17,170	19,486	19,957	10,656	41,810	16,329	19,864	11,624	8,485	1,317	44,535	261,727
Ohio,.....	46,623	18,119	20,189	22,761	11,965	44,192	16,869	19,990	19,436	8,717	1,899	...	230,760
Indiana,.....	4,923	1,922	2,284	2,316	1,125	4,555	1,863	2,228	1,880	794	393	237	24,520
Mississippi,.....	4,217	1,637	2,692	3,160	1,444	4,015	1,544	2,187	1,753	675	240	17,088	40,352
Illinois,.....	2,266	945	1,274	1,339	556	2,019	791	1,053	894	364	613	168	12,282
Louisiana,.....	5,848	2,491	2,963	5,130	2,508	5,384	2,588	2,874	3,026	1,499	7,585	34,660	76,566
Missouri,.....	3,438	1,345	1,568	2,069	3,213	1,265	1,431	1,369	562	607	3,011	20,845	20,845
Michigan,.....	800	351	583	763	340	640	332	368	311	130	120	24	4,762
Total,...	1,035,058	468,083	547,597	571,997	364,836	981,421	448,322	561,956	544,256	338,478	186,446	1,191,364	7,239,814

The distribution between the white and the colored races was as follows:

Whites, (males,)	2,987,571
" (females,)	2,874,433
	5,862,004
Colored, (free,)	186,446
" (slaves,)	1,191,364
	1,377,810
	7,239,814

The decennial increase, from all sources, compared with that of 1800, was—

	1810.	1800.
Of the whole population	36.45 per cent	35.02 per cent.
Of the whites	36.18 "	35.68 "
Of the free colored	72. — "	82.28 "
Of the slaves	33.40 "	27.96 "
Of the whole colored, bond and free	37.58 "	32.23 "

The greater rate of increase of the whole population, exhibited in the preceding comparison, is to be ascribed principally to the acquisition of Louisiana, and in a small degree to an increased importation of slaves before 1808, when it was known that Congress would avail itself of the power it would then possess, of prohibiting their further importation. These two circumstances are sufficient to account for the excess of increase under the census of 1810, which did not exceed 75,000 persons; and, indeed, as the slaves imported and acquired with Louisiana, probably amounted to more than half this number,* the remainder is not equal to the white inhabitants which Louisiana contained, and consequently we are justified in inferring, notwithstanding the augmented ratio of actual increase, a small diminution in the rate of gain from immigration or natural multiplication, or both united.

The three classes of the population were distributed in the following proportions, in 1790, 1800, and 1810:

	1790.	1800.	1810.
The white population	80.73 per cent, 81.12 per cent, 80.97 per cent.		
Free colored	1.51 " 2.05 " 2.57 "		
Slaves	17.56 " 16.83 " 16.46 "		
	100.	100.	100.
Of the whole free pop.	82.24 " 83.17 " 83.54 "		
Whole colored	19.07 " 18.88 " 19.03 "		

It thus appears that the free colored population had a greater proportional increase than either of the other two classes; and that while the

* Supposing the natural increase of the colored population to be the same from 1800 to 1810, as from 1790 to 1800, and there is no reason for supposing it to be different, then the difference of the decennial gain in this class, shown by the two enumerations, shows the accessions to this class from the purchase of Louisiana and from importation. That difference is 5.35 per cent on the whole colored population, which is equal to 53,576.

whole free population gained on the servile, the whole colored gained a little on the white.

The age of sixteen continued to divide the white population into two nearly equal parts, but the small excess of those under that age continued to diminish, thus:

Whites under 16, males	1,503,141
" " females	1,429,743
	_____ 2,932,884
Whites over 16, males	1,484,430
" " females	1,444,690
	_____ 2,929,120

which shows the proportion under sixteen to be 50.03 per cent. But as the proportion of the females under that age was greater than that of males, the former being 50.26 and the latter 49.69, we may infer that if there were no migration to the United States, which consists more of adults and of males, than of children and females, an age somewhat below sixteen would constitute the point of equal division.

The distribution of the white population, according to age, differs little from that shown by the preceding census, viz:

Those under ten were	34.4 per cent.
" between ten and sixteen	15.6 "
" between sixteen and twenty-six	18.9 "
" between twenty-six and forty-five	19. "
" of forty-five and upwards	12. "

The increase in 20 years was as follows, viz:

Of the whole population	84.2
Whites	84.8
Free colored	213.5
Slaves	70.7
Whole colored	81.9

The proportion of males to females in the white population was as 100 to 96.2, showing an increase of females of 1.1 per cent since the census of 1800.

At the different ages specified in the census, the proportions of the sexes were as follows, viz:

Under ten, the males to the females were as 100 to	94.8
Between ten and sixteen	" 95.7
Between sixteen and twenty-six	" 102.7
Between twenty-six and forty-five	" 97.3
Forty-five and upwards	" 92.7

which proportions exhibit the same features of irregularity as those of the preceding census.

The number of white females between the ages of sixteen and forty-five, was 1,106,212, which is 18.87 per cent of the whole white population, showing a very small variation from the proportion exhibited by the preceding census.

The following table shows the number of whites, free colored, and slaves, in the slaveholding states and territories, on the 1st of August, 1810, with the relative proportions of each:

STATES AND TERRI- TORIES.	Total popu- lation.	Whites.	Free colored.	Slaves.	PER CENTAGE OF		
					Wh'es.	F. Col.	Slaves.
Delaware.....	72,674	55,361	13,136	4,177	76.2	18.1	5.7
Maryland	380,546	235,117	33,927	111,502	61.8	8.9	29.3
Dist. of Columbia..	24,023	16,079	2,549	5,395	66.9	10.6	22.5
Virginia.....	974,622	551,534	30,570	392,518	56.6	3.1	40.3
North Carolina....	550,500	376,410	10,266	168,824	67.8	1.8	30.4
South Carolina.....	415,115	214,196	4,554	196,365	51.6	1.1	47.3
Georgia.....	252,433	145,414	1,801	105,218	57.6	1.7	41.7
Kentucky.....	406,511	324,237	1,713	80,561	79.8	.4	19.8
Tennessee.....	261,727	215,875	1,317	44,535	82.5	.5	17.
Mississippi.....	40,352	23,024	240	17,088	57.	.3	42.7
Louisiana.....	76,556	34,311	7,585	34,660	44.8	9.9	45.3
Missouri.....	20,845	17,227	607	3,011	82.6	2.9	14.4
TOTAL.....	3,480,904	2,208,785	108,265	1,163,854	63.5	3.1	33.4

It appears from the preceding table that both descriptions of the colored population in these states had gained on the whites in the preceding ten years, and that the slaves which in 1800 had constituted a little less than a third of their aggregate number, now amounted to a little more than a third.

ART. II.—THE COMMERCE OF SYRIA.—No. II.*

ARTICLES OF TRADE IN SYRIA.

Timber.—The forests of Northern Syria have been of late years drawn upon for large supplies of timber, both for public and private purposes. The mountains back of Scanderoon supply the arsenals of Alexandria, and could supply much larger quantities if the mountains were less steep, and there were any roads. For this reason, too, the mountains of Byass are better timbered than those of Beilan, &c., (which are more accessible from the sea,) both as to variety, quantity, and size of timber. The trees on them are white and yellow pine, of lengths from 100 to 150 feet, and of dimensions, to take a square of from 24 to 25 inches, say yellow oak, 80 feet, and 18 to 20 inches in square; green oak, 18 to 20 feet, and 7 to 9 inches in square; beech, 30 to 35 feet, by 14 to 15 inches square; linden, 40 to 50 feet, by 25 to 27 inches in square. The pine is mostly knotty, but very full of turpentine. The oaks of both species are straight-grained, like the American. The beech is of good, close-grained quality, but not nearly so plentiful as the other two. The linden-tree is scarce. In 1838, about 150 woodcutters and 300 trimmers and dressers were employed, and about 50,000 trees cut and brought down; but 10,000, cut in 1837 and 1838, were abandoned from the difficulties of transport and want of roads, which could not be made for less than 15 or 20,000 dollars. An axe-man earns $2\frac{1}{2}$ piastres per day, and the trimmers and dressers about 3 piastres; but if the tree is unsound it is their loss. 70,000 to 80,000 trees were shipped in 1838 to Alexandria, say 14,000 tons. Timber 15 to 18 inches square, prepared for the saw or for working, stands in, ready for

* Concluded from page 511, Vol. VI.

shipment, about 1 piastre per foot. Inch-planks 25 to 30 feet long, and over a foot broad, cost 3 to $3\frac{1}{2}$ piastres each, or a little more than a farthing per foot.

Cotton.—That of Northern Syria is fine, but of a short staple, and only adapted to the most ordinary purposes ; the greater part is much inferior to the Souboujas, from near Smyrna, and generally equal to the middling and inferior qualities of Kennie and Bander. It is seldom sent to the English market, but to the Italian, French, and German ports. That of Aleppo is best, of Edlip, inferior, of Beld, Azass, and Aintab worse, and of Killis, worst. The average export to Europe is 500 to 600 cantars per annum ; and 80 to 100 cantars have gone during the last three years to Mesopotamia. Its cultivation is the chief agricultural employment in the district of Adana, and cotton is the principal export of that district ; a middling crop is 10 to 12,000 cantars, an abundant one 18, and even 20,000, of which 1,000 to 2,000 are annually exported to Europe ; 5,000 to Romelia and the Archipelago, also to Smyrna, where it is mixed and sold for Smyrna cotton. 6 to 7,000 cantars are sent to Kaissarieh, where the country merchants resort, and whence the borders of the Black Sea are supplied, some of the Adana cotton being exported also from Sinope to Russia. 5,000 cantars are sent to different parts of Anatolia, (i. e. Asia Minor,) a large quantity to Mousnel, Diarbekir, Orfa, Merdin, &c. and 100 to 150 cantars to Syria. The total value of cotton produced in Adana and Northern Syria, is about 24,000,000 piastres, or \$1,200,000. In the Nabulus district, in Palestine, 4,500 to 5,000 cantars are annually produced, about three fourths of which are exported. Acre and Jaffa also produce some. On the whole, Northern and Southern Syria may be estimated to produce 30 to 35,000 cantars, at an average value of 350,000 pounds sterling ; but the production may be almost indefinitely increased by additional capital and labor.

Silk.—The mulberry flourishes admirably on the coast and through the more fertile parts of the Lebanon range, and the cultivation of silk spreads rapidly about Beyroot. The peasantry get one fourth of the silk for taking care of the worms and reeling ; the landholder providing leaves and sheds, which are a simple structure of reeds, without a roof. The cultivation might be indefinitely extended, and silk might supply, in a greater degree, the great desideratum of Syrian trade, viz., articles of export. The silk of Antioch, Suedich, and their environs, 180 to 220 cantars, is brought to Aleppo, which consumes 75 to 80 cantars. Aleppo also receives 35 to 40 cantars from Amassir, and from Beyroot, Tripoli, and Mt. Lebanon, 70 to 80 cantars. In 1836, 20 cantars went to England, 30 to France, 50 to Genoa and Leghorn. The silk is worth 300 to 380 piastres per 1000 drams.

The staple is good, the growth of the worm being nourished by a mulberry leaf well adapted to its nature ; but it is wound off coarsely and in long reel, which unsuits it for the best purposes in Europe. The introduction of the short reel would increase the export vastly ; but Syria has entirely neglected to follow the example of the French and Italians in meliorating the quality of her raw silk.

Tripoli and its vicinity furnished, in 1836, 421 bales, weighing $157\frac{1}{2}$ cantars, for exportation, 233 to Marseilles, 141 to Leghorn, 12 to Trieste, 16 to Egypt, and $17\frac{1}{2}$ to Aleppo ; and the prices ruled from 95 to 105 piastres per oke ; it was in 1839, 120 to 140 piastres per oke. An abundant

crop for the Tripolitan district is 400 cantars; most of which is sold for Beirut, Hamah, and Homs, and some is manufactured at Tripoli; most of what goes to Beirut is shipped to France and Italy. Exclusive of the Tripoli district, Mt. Lebanon produces 1,200 cantars annually, or 240,000 okes, at 120 to 125 piastres per oke; two thirds are exported. The consumption of British cottons having slackened the demand for silk for the interior, silk cultivation is rather on the decline.

Wool.—Fifteen hundred cantars are got in Aleppo and its environs, one tenth of which it makes into a felt (*ketgzes*) for carpets, horse coverings, packings for goods, also into stocking yarn, sartouts, &c. The consumption in Mt. Lebanon, Homs, Hamah, Marash, Aintab, and the environs, is about 800 cantars. 700 to 900 cantars are sent to Europe; the quality is generally fine, but it is unclean and mixed, worth in its gross state about 160 piastres per cantar. Its high price, and mixed and foul condition, prevent its export to Britain, and it is chiefly sent to France and Italy. 80 to 100 cantars are collected and consumed in the Tripoli district. The nomade tribes bring some to Hamah, Homs, or Aleppo, which is not all consumed. In 1837-8, Tripoli, which purchases thence, sent 115 cantars to Leghorn, 72 to Trieste, and 8 to Marseilles. In 1838, the price was 700, and in 1839, 800 piastres per cantar of 180 okes. The wool trade to England might become important, but the Syrian flocks far from suffice for food to the people; Aleppo alone annually consumes 55,000 to 60,000 sheep, 20,000 of which come from Erzeroum, and the rest from the nomade tribes. 80,000 go from Erzeroum and Mesopotamia to Hamah, Homs, Damascus, and the south, and are sold at 65 to 80 piastres each, averaging 70 piastres, making a total of 5,600,000 piastres, partly for cash and partly on credit.

Olive-oil.—The olive tree yields, at most, an abundant crop every other year; sometimes only once in four years. 8 to 10,000 cantars of oil are used at Aleppo, 5,000 of which are got from the environs. Damascus consumes, for soap-boiling, burning, and eating, 4,800 to 5,000 cantars, one fourth of which is from the environs, and three fourths from Safid, Nabulus, and the southward. Ibrahim extended the cultivation of the olive, and introduced an improved mode of expressing the oil. French oil-presses have lately been used with success.

Wine.—This might be made valuable, both for consumption and export. Some convents on Lebanon produce the “Vino d’Oro,” a wine of excellent quality. But the habit of boiling wine is almost universal, and destroys its character; and the use of skins is unfavorable to the preservation of the finer characteristics.

Madder-roots are but partially cultivated; some in the Aleppo district, more in that of Damascus, and most at Nebk; a little also in the plains of Homs and Hamah, and at Aleppo; in all 70 to 80 cantars are grown, 25 to 30 or 35 of which are consumed at Aleppo, 30 to 35 are sent to Mesopotamia, and the price is 2 piastres per oke, or 4 per rottolo. A great deal is produced at Karaman, Nekde, Akserail, and some near Kaisserieh; but the greater quantity is cultivated at Erehli, two days' journey on the other side of Mt. Taurus, on the road to Constantinople, by way of Adana, and may be transported conveniently for shipment to Tarsous. The annual produce is 300 cantars, and the average price $1\frac{1}{2}$ to $1\frac{3}{4}$ piastres per oke. When Dutch and French madders are high in Europe, and principally in England, and the crop at Yourdes, in the Saroukan Sandjak, is

large, it supplies Smyrna for shipment to England ; and madders, both from Erehli and Cyprus, are purchased for the European markets. Madders might be largely produced in Syria ; they grow abundantly, and almost without cultivation, as well as on the mountains of Cyprus, whence they are received in bulk, and packed in bales at Beirut for England and Europe.

Yellow-berries.—Many fruitless attempts have been made to cultivate this berry, which grows wild in the mountains near Antioch, but must be cultivated to become merchantable. But neither from the indigenous tree, nor from the gardens of Kaisserieh, where it is produced in the highest perfection, have the efforts succeeded to extend its cultivation.

Indigo grows wild in several parts of Palestine, but attention seems not to have been given to its cultivation or collection.

Sugar.—The sugar-cane has been partially cultivated near Beirut. It was extensively cultivated in the time of the crusaders, in the sultry but well-watered plains of Jericho, where are still ruins of several sugar mills. There appears no reason to doubt the aptitude of the soil for its production in many parts of the country.

Cochineal.—Ibrahim successfully introduced the cochineal near Tripoli, where the cactus, on which the insect feeds, thrives very well.

Goats' wool.—This comes from Erzroom, Kaisserieh, Karpout, Malatia, Diarbekir, Aintab, and a little from Antioch. There are fine qualities from each of these places ; the best is of Karpout, Aintab, and Antioch, the latter especially, which is also much the cleanest, and equal to what is shipped from Smyrna ; but from want of knowledge, and of persons to clean and work it at Aleppo, it is not prepared in an equally fine state. Most of it goes to Italy, and a little went to France in 1836. About 7,970 rottoli were imported into Aleppo, and the whole was exported in a clean state, amounting to about 6,976 rottoli. Inferior qualities, in the gross state, are worth 15 piastres per rottolo, and 17½ clean ; the best, 2,100 piastres per cantar, and 2,250 cleaned—or 21 and 22½ piastres per rottolo. English merchants have not yet imported it to England.

Tobacco.—All the tobacco raised is consumed in the country or sent to Egypt, its use being universal, both by males and females. Next to wheat, it is the most important product, but it is impossible to estimate the amount. It is grown almost everywhere, but chiefly in Aleppo, Latakia, Tripoli, and Mount Lebanon, where are got the finest qualities. No tobacco is imported, and what is grown pays duty, on retiring it from the lands, of 34 piastres per cantar, and also 3 piastres per cantar on exportation. Damascus imported and used in 1836, 230,578 okes of tobacco, and 302,000 of tombag ; in 1837, 190,577 okes, and 117,210 of tombag.

Hemp.—In the Damascus district 1,200 to 1,500 loads are produced, at 60 piastres per load, amounting to from 900 to 1,000 cantars. About one half as much is produced in the Aleppo district. It is chiefly used for cords, twine, &c., and is not exported.

Beeswax.—200 to 250 cantars of yellow beeswax are annually collected in the Aleppo district, from Aintab, Killis, Antioch, Idlip, and their environs ; 50 cantars are used in the manufactories and by the dyers, and as much by the population and in the Christian churches of Aleppo. 50 are used at Aintab, Killis, Antioch, and their environs. The export to Europe seldom exceeds 100 cantars, and varies, according to demand and price, from that to 50. The Tripoli district collects 100 cantars—barely

sufficient for home consumption ; but parcels are brought in from Hamah and Homs. In 1839, 10 cantars went from Tripoli to Marseilles, and 2 to Trieste. The price has ruled from 3,000 piastres to 3,200 and 3,400 per cantar.

Scammony.—Some is produced in Northern Syria, but not much, though Aleppo gives its name to what is deemed the best. It is scarcely ever obtained pure, being adulterated at almost every stage. The peasants collect it by perforating the root of the plant, and adulterate it by starch and myrrh ; the buyers also add to its impurities before it reaches the Aleppo market.

Soap.—When the oil crop is abundant, Aleppo, Idlip, and Killis make 350 to 400 coppers of soap, each rendering from 20 to 22 cantars of clear soap ; viz, Aleppo 200 to 250, Idlip 100 to 120, Killis 10 to 15 cantars. But some is also sent to the coast of Latakia, Tarsous, and Adana. Each copper requires 17 cantars of oil, and 13 to 15 of soda or barilla. Total soap made, 1,000 to 2,000 cantars. The charges on boiling a copper are 5,000 piastres, 600 of which is a government duty. Aleppo exports three quarters of its annual product, chiefly to Mesopotamia, and another government duty of the same amount, i. e. 30 per cent, is paid. The price varies from 700 to 800 piastres per cantar ; some has been successfully exported to Mediterranean ports. At Jerusalem, Nabulus, Gaza, Lod, and Ramleh, 500 coppers of 3,200 okes each, are made, three fifths of which are exported to Egypt. Damascus makes 100 coppers, Deir el Kane 200—none for export. The Nabulus soap is highly esteemed in the Levant.

Barilla.—The barilla or soda consumed in making soap in Northern and Southern Syria, comes from the banks of the Euphrates, near Deir, Hamah, Homs, and the Hauran ; the usual price is 70 to 75 piastres per cantar. It is exported to Candia, but none to Europe.

Sponge.—This is not exported from Aleppo, but as it is procured along the coast from the Tripoli to the Latakia district, it forms a branch of commerce meriting attention. Any adventurer may fish for it, by paying 100 piastres to government. Fishermen from the Archipelago come and get it for Smyrna, &c. The Syrians in a successful season get 1,500 okes of fine sponge, worth 130 to 180 piastres ; 1,500 middling, worth 15 to 18 piastres ; 500 large horse ordinary. The quantity is partly sold to speculators, for Europe, but the major part is sent to Marseilles and Smyrna by the country traders.

Mines and minerals.—A silver mine was discovered by the Egyptian government, in the northern range of Taurus, six hours from Tarsus, and an English engineer who directed its works, died there ; since then an Italian engineer was employed, and afterwards Prussian and Austrian engineers. It produced a very small portion of silver to the quantity of lead. The government still worked it in 1839, but with what success is not known. The Prussian engineers were reported to have found abundance of iron ore on Jebel Akra, but no mining or working of it is known of. There are iron mines at Duma and Rihan, in Mount Lebanon, which had been placed by government at the disposal of the Emir Beschir, on his paying annually a certain sum for the produce, about 1,200 or 1,500 cantars, not more than enough for the horse-shoes and nails of his district. The distance of smelting fuel prevents the more extensive working of the mines.

Coal mines.—Ibrahim wrought some on Lebanon, but the difficulty of access and cost of transport rendered the result doubtful. The quantity is considerable, but rather sulphurous. The 114 workmen get 3 piastres each, per day. In 1837 there were dug 14,700 cantars of 217 okes, each making about 4,000 tons.

Salt.—It is of general consumption in Syria, and is found in great abundance at different points; but for the supply of the south the greater part is from Palmyra and Keriatin, and for the north from Geboul, on the road to Belis, on the Euphrates. The usual price is from 2 to 4 piastres per medde.

Saltpetre is made on the banks of the Euphrates, by the Arabs, who manufacture their own powder, but it does not seem to be brought thence to Syria, whose government received its powder from Egypt; consequently there was little consumption of it, as the population was disarmed, and little use is made of it for the chase.

Manufactures.—“Of the manufactures for which Syria was formerly renowned, few have escaped the destruction with which successive invasions and the gradual depopulation of the country have been accompanied. Damascus and Aleppo alone retain a few relics of their ancient manufacturing glory. In the towns of secondary order there is scarcely the memory, certainly not the vestiges, of its former industry.”

Silk and cotton fabrics.—In Damascus are 4,000 looms for silk and cotton stuffs, each of which produces weekly from 4 to 5 pieces, of 11 pikes in length by one in width, containing about 100 drams of silk and 100 of cotton twist, of Nos. 16 to 24. The price per piece is from 80 to 95 piastres. The price of labor is fixed at so much per piece, which is from 8 to 10 piastres. The looms for cotton stuffs number about 400, which make each about 7 to 8 pieces per week, requiring about 200 drams of cotton twist, Nos. 16 to 24; each piece is 11 pikes long and 1 broad. The price is 20 to 21 piastres; and the labor is paid at 6 piastres per piece. In Aleppo are about 1,200 silk and cotton looms, which make about one piece each per day. In 1829, there were 5,900 to 6,000 looms at work; but of these stuffs, being of a rich and costly kind, the consumption has fallen off. Since the decline, about 500 looms have been set to work for cotton alone, which consume British cotton twist, of Nos. 16 to 24. In Lebanon are about 1,200 looms, 300 of which make silk and cotton stuffs, used by the natives; 300 make the abbas, the coarse woollen garment of the peasantry; and 600 are for coarse cotton stuffs for shirting. But even those who weave these garments are employed also in agriculture, while at Damascus the largest portion of the working classes are engaged in manufactures.

Of gold and silver thread.—Aleppo consumes of it 150,000 drams; Bagdad and Bassora 100,000; Damascus and environs 75,000; Homs and Hamah 25,000; Mount Lebanon, Beirut, and the coast 50,000; Anatolia 25,000, and Mesopotamia 25,000 drams. Smyrna used to consume a great deal, but is now overstocked for several years.

Of rosaries, &c.—In Palestine many people get their living by making crosses, beads, rosaries, and amulets, and mother-of-pearl shells, which are brought generally from the Red Sea, and engraved with religious subjects, chiseled in relief. The monopoly of the trade, which formerly was freely conducted in the market place of Bethlehem, and in many

parts of Jerusalem, is now in the hands of the Terrasanta monks, and at monopoly prices.

The working classes of Syria are marked for their cleverness, sagacity, aptitude, and promptness to understand and accomplish their most difficult tasks.

Export commerce.—Cotton wool, silk, sheep's wool, olive oil, sugar, indigo, the finer qualities of tobacco, and many other articles, might be provided on a large scale, had labor and capital their full influence. But even the import trade suffers considerably for the want of commodities for the European markets, and this is so much felt that many articles can be imported into Mesopotamia and Persia from Smyrna and Constantinople, more cheaply than from Scanderoon and Beirut, because of the lower freights from Europe paid to ports which offer a return cargo; hence it is a great desideratum in the interest of Syrian commerce, that there should be a more regular and abundant supply of articles for export. Only part of the vessels bringing manufactures from England can obtain return cargoes in Syria, and must go to Smyrna, &c. Sometimes they can make up a load at different ports on the coast, but this is uncertain.

Gums and drugs were formerly articles of great importance, but are at present of a very limited trade.

Gum-arabic is received from Bagdad and Egypt; there are two sorts, the red and the white, worth 7 to 9 piastres per oke. But 3 cantars are consumed in Aleppo, and it is rare if there is a surplus in market for shipment to England. The pistachio, apricot, and prune produce gums used in Syria, the two last as a substitute for gum-arabic, which is worth 10 piastres per oke, while the other two are worth but 2 or 3 piastres.

Assafetida comes from India and Muscat, by Bagdad. None is now consumed, received, or exported from Aleppo. Its nominal price is 10 to 12 piastres per oke.

Tragacanth is received from Anatolia, Marash, and Mesopotamia; formerly it came from Bagdad, and was shipped to Europe. Now that from Karpout is mostly used at Aleppo, though some is received from Diarbekir; the first is worth 6 piastres per oke, and the second and third 5 piastres. Aleppo and its districts use 20 to 25 cantars, and about as much is sent to Damascus. There is seldom in the place more than two or three cantars for exportation to Europe.

Scammony is a gum resin, the produce of a species of convolvulus or creeper plant, which grows in most parts of Anatolia and in Northern Syria; it is obtained by an incision made into the roots, which yield a milky juice, and is received in sea-shells placed for that purpose; when kept it becomes hard. It is valued as a purgative and laxative, and much purchased and used by the English antibilious pill proprietors, as it has a powerful antibilious virtue. It is rarely obtained in a pure state; the collectors first adulterating it with flour or starch, to give it color and consistency, and mixing gum-myrrh with it to give it a bitter and aromatic taste. It then is sold to the country and Jew dealers, who further adulterate it in the same manner, mixing 4 or 5 rottoli of starch to one rottolo of scammony. Its price is 250 to 300 piastres per rottolo; an inferior quality is sold at 15 to 20 piastres per rottolo.

Senna is received from Egypt; none is cultivated in Northern Syria; nor is it an article received from Egypt for shipment from hence to Europe; about one or two cantars are required for the consumption of Aleppo.

Opium is not cultivated in this part of Syria; about two or three loads are received of that produced at Afion, Kara-Hissar, Akshehr, in Anatolia, for the consumption of Aleppo and the north of Syria.

Incense is received from Egypt, and is of limited consumption for the country only. It is calculated, that for the north of Syria, two or three cantars are required annually; and about the same quantity is exported to Mesopotamia and the northern part of Asia Minor.

Skins.—Hare, fox, and jackal skins are collected and received from Tokat, Kaisserieh, Karpout, Malatia, Diarbekir, Aintab, and Basna. There is no consumption for them in Aleppo. In 1836, about 18,700 hare skins were received, and after being assorted, about 17,500 were exported; prices from 1830 to 1833, $2\frac{1}{2}$ to $3\frac{1}{2}$ piastres per skin; but during 1837, 1838 and 1839, $1\frac{1}{2}$ piastres, and without buyers. A small trial was made of them to the English market. They have been chiefly sent to the French and Italian ports, and are consumed by the hatters for making hats of fine quality. 300,000 skins of hare, fox, and jackal, are exported from Tarsus to different ports, but none to England.

Galls, or gall-nuts, (in Turkish *mazi*, in Arabic *afis*,) form a principal export of Syria. They abound in Asia Minor, Mesopotamia, Syria, and Persia, and are of three species, white, green, and blue; but their chief locality is on the mountains near Mosul, on the Tigris. The real Mosul galls are the best, but all that are gathered in the surrounding country are sold under that name. The annual gathering is 7,000 to 10,000 cantars, including 70 to 80 from the Singar mountains and Giaour Dagh of Killis. Aleppo uses 50 to 60 cantars annually, the rest goes to Europe. 2,000 cantars were imported into Aleppo from Mosul, in 1836, and exported. The price at Mosul is 1,200 to 1,300 piastres per cantar, and has been 2,000, though the nominal price is 1,400 to 1,500 at Aleppo. In 1838, 700 cantars went to England, 1,000 to Marseilles, and 300 to Italy; but most of all these are supposed to find their way to England also; for notwithstanding the trade between Aleppo and England is open, it frequently suits buyers to apply to trading ports in the Mediterranean for Syrian produce. The duty and charges from Mosul to Scanderoon are 580 piastres per cantar, or nearly 25 per cent. The journey is of 40 days, and with camels, at 20 miles a day, say 800 miles; cost £15 sterling per ton for carriage alone. 30 to 50 cantars of galls are gathered at Tripoli; in some seasons more. A little is consumed in the country, the rest is exported; in 1836, 45 sacks went to Marseilles, 21 to Leghorn, and 10 to Trieste. About the same quantity is collected in the Latakia district, and sent to France and Italy. The annual Bagdad caravan brings to Damascus many, collected about Mosul and Bagdad; in 1838, 800 cantars were thus brought, and forwarded to Beirut for France and Italy. The cost of transport is about the same as from Mosul to Scanderoon.

Saffron.—The finest comes to Syria from Persia, Adamish, in Anatolia, and Erzroom. Of the first, in 1836, 250 okes were received, worth 400 piastres per oke; of the second, 150 okes, worth 500 piastres; the third are about 350 per oke. The fine qualities are used for gold thread, as the bright yellow enables to dispense with some of the gold. In 1836, 63 cantars came, inferior, worth 2,000 piastres per cantar, and were exported to France.

Safflower.—20 to 25 cantars are produced in the gardens and fields of Aleppo; 70 to 80 at Hamah, Homs, and Nebk; the whole is consumed

in Syria for coloring rice pilaws and other eatables. It is worth 18 to 20 piastres per rottolo. The cultivation is not sufficient to produce a quantity for exportation; the quality being very inferior to that produced in Egypt.

Yellow berries.—This production of Kaisserieh averages 15,000 to 18,000 rottoli per year, most of which goes to Constantinople, though formerly to Smyrna, whither but a quarter of that quantity is now sent. From these ports it goes chiefly to London—some to Trieste, Marseilles, and Italy. 300 rottoli are sent from Kaisserieh also to Diarbekir for consumption, and as much to Malatia, Karpout, Aintab, Aleppo, and Damascus. Its price fluctuates; ordinarily it is 150 to 160 piastres; in 1839, 100, in 1836, 260 piastres per kunkari of 3 rottoli. To Constantinople and Smyrna, there is no duty; to any other place, $2\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. Cost of carriage to Constantinople and Smyrna, 150 to 200 piastres per 90 rottoli; small charges, 15 piastres per load. It is used by calico printers and dyers, producing a bright yellow.

Tarsous and Scanderoon, from their nearness to Kaisserieh, would be eligible ports for the shipment to England of this article, but it is not brought to them nor to Aleppo, though it might always be employed by the Aleppo merchants for their returns. A small quantity is produced at Marash, ordinary, worth $2\frac{1}{2}$ to $3\frac{1}{2}$ piastres per rottolo, but it is not exported, being all used at Aintab, Aleppo, &c.

Import commerce.—This consists chiefly of colonial produce and European manufactures.

Coffee.—All kinds are consumed at Aleppo, but chiefly St. Domingo and Havana, received from French and Italian ports, say 40,000 okes, and of Mocha, 23,000 okes. 792 bags (23,760 rottoli) came from England in 1836-7, at the price of 16 to 17 piastres per rottolo; one third is consumed at Aleppo, the rest goes to Mesopotamia and the interior. There were disposed of in a similar way, 36,750 rottoli, in 330 barrels and 725 bags, price 17 to $18\frac{1}{2}$ piastres; and from Italy 11,325 rottoli, at 17 to $18\frac{1}{2}$ piastres, say 321 bags.

Damascus uses 75,000 to 85,000 okes, chiefly St. Domingo and Havana, and from France and Italy, though some goes from England. A good deal of Mocha is also consumed in Damascus, most of which comes from England and Marseilles; 30 to 40 cantars are annually received from Bagdad, and some 15 or 20, contraband, by the pilgrims' caravan from Mecca, which sell higher than that brought by sea; the actual price is 13 to 14 piastres per oke. Damascus consumes on an average 150 cantars, sometimes 180 to 200; in 1836, it imported of Mocha and European coffee 75,122 okes, and in 1837, 86,210.

Sugar.—Aleppo consumes 250 to 300 cantars, in loaves and powder, and exports 150 to 200; of crushed, East India, or moist, 200 cantars are used, and 25 to 30 sent to Mesopotamia. The loaf sugar comes from England, and more from France; the crushed chiefly from England. There are received from Europe 178 cantars in loaves, 211 crushed, 36 moist, and 26 fine crushed. Damascus and its environs, and the supply for Bagdad, require 500 to 700 cantars of loaf, which comes wholly from France; and 300 to 400 cantars of crushed, mostly from Britain. In 1836-7, Aleppo received 358 sacks, each weighing 25 rottoli, and 484 barrels—in all 45,645 rottoli, the ruling prices of which were from 10 to 12 piastres each, in barrels, and 10 to $10\frac{1}{2}$ per rottolo, in sacks. The

crushed and refined is English, that in sacks East Indian. Two thirds of the above is consumed in Aleppo, and one third sent into the interior. From France, in 1836-7, came 44,000 rottoli, in 114 barrels and 766 cases; prices 12½ to 13 piastres per rottolo; two thirds is consumed at Aleppo, and one third goes to the interior and Mesopotamia. From Italy came 73 cases and 100 bags; same prices, and same disposal—in all 8,650 rottoli. Damascus imported from Europe, of loaf and powder sugar, in 1836, 121,417 okes, and in 1837, 112,722, mostly loaves.

Rum is of limited consumption, and that imported is of most inferior quality, of the Leeward Islands, and other low qualities brought by the Americans into the Mediterranean. None of the superior rum from the British West India islands is brought to Syria, as the consumers would not pay an adequate price. It is, moreover, an article of *appalto*, i. e., farmed by those agencies for the sale of common aquardent, or arrack and wine, the former of which is principally consumed by the population in Syria, both on account of its cheapness, being distilled from dried raisins, and because it yields a strong spirit.

Rice is of great and extensive consumption; it comes chiefly from Egypt, but in 1836-7, about 540 bags were received from England, each weighing 15 rottoli; price 5 to 6½ piastres per rottolo. This was consumed in Aleppo. Damascus imported in 1836, 13,500 baskets, each weighing 40 rottoli, and in 1837, 12,500 rottoli.

Spices generally are received from Europe, and some are imported from the East Indies *via* Bagdad.

Cloves.—7 to 10 cantars are used annually in Aleppo, and 5 or 6 consumed in its environs and sent to Mesopotamia. In Damascus only 3 or 4 cantars, or about 800 okes, are annually wanted.

Pepper.—100 to 120 cantars are used annually in Aleppo, and 40 to 50 sent thence to Mesopotamia. In Damascus about 80 to 90 cantars, or 18,000 okes, are annually wanted. In 1836-7, there were received from England at Aleppo, 710 bags, equal to 10,515 rottoli—ruling prices 11½ to 12 piastres; half for Aleppo use, and half for the interior. From France, 135 bags, equal to 4,050 rottoli, 11 to 12 piastres per rottolo; one half for Aleppo, the other half for Mesopotamia. From Italy, 237 bags, equal to 3,555 rottoli—ruling prices 11 to 12 piastres each; half for Aleppo, and half for the interior. Damascus imported in 1836, 23,470 okes, and in 1837, 27,247.

Pimento.—15 to 20 cantars are annually consumed in Aleppo; 10 to 15 in Damascus. In 1836-7, there were received from England at Aleppo, 1,200 rottoli—prices 12 to 12½ piastres each; half is used at Aleppo, half goes into Mesopotamia. From France, 5,870 rottoli—ruling prices 12 to 12½ each; one half for Aleppo, one half for the interior. Damascus imported in 1836, 3,118 okes, and in 1837, 3,534.

Cinnamon.—10 to 12 cantars of canella, or cinnamon, are annually consumed at Aleppo, and 5 to 6 sent into the interior. Damascus consumes but 3 to 4 cantars.

Cochineal.—7,000 okes are used in Aleppo, one half for dyeing the silk and cotton twist for the manufacture of stuffs, and half by the dyers for other uses. Damascus requires 30,000 okes, for the same use chiefly. It is received principally from France and Italy, though parcels sometimes come from England, which furnished in 1836-7, 5,880 okes; ruling prices 130 to 150 piastres each. Half is used at Aleppo, the other half for the

interior. France sent 6,510 okes, and Italy 5,740, of the same price and destination. Damascus imported in 1836, 7,434 okes, and in 1837, 11,644.

Indigo.—Aleppo consumes of this 14,000 okes annually; some is also annually sent at times to Mesopotamia, and Aleppo supplies its environs, viz, Idlip, 15 to 20 cantars; Antioch, 3 to 5; Killis, 2 to 3; Aintab, 8 to 10; Marash, 5 to 6; Basna, 3 to 4. For Damascus 50 to 60 cantars are required, and chiefly consumed there. Indigo comes from the East Indies, both through England and Bagdad, though there is a small importation from France and Italy of Guatimala indigo, in ceroons. In 1836-7, Aleppo received from England 8,500 rottoli—prices 180 to 220 piastres each; two thirds for Aleppo, and one third for the interior. From France, at the same price and for the same destination, 200 rottoli; from Italy 550 rottoli, the same prices, two thirds for Aleppo, one third for Mesopotamia. Damascus imported from Europe, in 1836, 10,205 okes, in 1837, 4,728; and from Bagdad 7,399 and 1,071.

Brazil wood.—35 to 40 cantars of Pernambuco, or Brazil wood, are used annually at Aleppo; it is called Fernambouch, but generally arrives from Bagdad, and is said to be received there from the East Indies. That from Europe is sent to Aintab, Marash, Malatia, Diarbekir, and other parts of Mesopotamia. Not more than 25 to 30 cantars are used at Damascus; 15 to 20 cantars of Nicaragua, or St. Martha's wood, are consumed annually at Aleppo; 40 to 50 at Damascus. Of logwood, or Campeachy wood, 25 to 30 cantars are used at Aleppo, and 40 to 50 at Damascus.

Dye-woods.—Two kinds are consumed in Damascus, and come from the East Indies, by Bagdad; one called Zarbad, of which 30 to 40 cantars are used, and that of Genghil, of which 25 to 40 are employed.

Copperas.—35 to 40 cantars are used in Aleppo; and there were imported there from England, in 1836-7, 121 casks, equal to 7,260 rottoli; prices 200 to 250 piastres each; half consumed at Aleppo, half in the interior. Damascus imported in 1836, 3,914 okes, and in 1837, 12,239.

British goods.—The establishment of British commercial houses in Syria, in 1833, has been followed by a large increase in the demand for British manufactures, but they have been particularly affected by the disturbed state of the country. Orders are now given by Syrian houses to agents for the British manufacturers who are established at Beirut; a payment is made in advance, which is remitted to England, and the balance is paid on the arrival of the goods.

British, French, Italian, and German imports.—From England, Aleppo received in 1836-7, 5,336 bales and 53 cases of British manufactures; of domestic long-cloths, 20,000 pieces in 1836, and twice as much in 1837; Damascus, for the city and its environs, and for Bagdad, took 800 to 1,000 bales, or 700,000 pieces.

From France, only two bales came in 1836-7, consisting principally of prints of Switzerland, and in very small quantities. From Italy, 293 bales, of all sorts, but a considerable part British. Each bale is estimated at 3,000 to 5,000 piastres, about one third of which, say 97 bales, is consumed in Aleppo, and the other two thirds go into Mesopotamia.

From Germany come 94 bales, little or none of which is British, principally printed handkerchiefs from Germany; each bale valued at from

5,000 to 8,000 piastres. One third is used in Aleppo, the rest in the interior.

Each British bale is valued at from 3,000 to 5,000 piastres, and very few 6,000 to 8,000. Aleppo consumes half, and half is sent to Mesopotamia, Armenia, and as far as Persia. Damascus imported in 1836, 32,981 pieces, and in 1837, 25,952 pieces.

Aleppo takes off about 14,000 pieces of cambrics, shirtings, and madapolans annually; the consumption has however considerably increased. Damascus, for itself and Bagdad, takes off 16,000 to 20,000 pieces; it imported, in muslins generally, in 1836, 29,088 pieces, and in 1837, 25,409, though the consumption is declining on account of the Aleppo and Damascus imitation fabrics.

Imitation shawls.—19,939 pieces of imitation zebra shawls were imported at Aleppo in 1836, and the consumption was increasing, as also that of Damascus, which receives a like amount, and about 2,000 pieces of lappets annually; and in Aleppo, in 1836, 2,500 were sold, which was the average demand.

Cotton prints.—Damascus receives annually from England, about 10,000 pieces of prints, of two and three colors. The consumption is on the increase, but the manufactured cotton and silk stuffs of the country are preferred, which checks the consumption of British prints; the latter are employed by the female sex, and the former by the men, for their long dresses. At Aleppo, in 1836, 19,380 pieces of different kinds of prints were received, great part of which were consumed in that part of Syria, and some sent to Mesopotamia; this trade is increasing. Damascus imported in 1836, 36,095 pieces, and in 1837, 30,537.

Cotton twist.—Aleppo uses for her different manufactures, &c., about 180,000 to 200,000 okes annually, of Nos. 10 to 30 and 40 to 60. It supplied to Aintab, Marash, and Malatia, 80 to 100 bales; to Orfa, 20 to 30; to Merdin, 20 to 25; to Diarbekir, 250; to Mosul, 80 bales of two Nos., and 50 of No. 50; to Hamah and Homs, 200 bales, the latter sometimes receiving its supplies from Aleppo, and sometimes from Damascus, 21,000 okes, annually. Damascus and Bagdad take off 150,000 to 180,000 okes, of Nos. 16 to 24, annually, and the trade increases.

Cotton water twist.—Aleppo received from England, in 1836-7, 3,877 bales, valued at 2,000 to 2,200 piastres each; two thirds of which went to Mesopotamia, Armenia, and as far as Trebizond.

Mule yarn.—Aleppo, in 1836-7, took 600 bales, valued at 3,200 to 3,400 piastres each; two thirds for consumption, one third for the interior. Damascus imported in 1836, 115,622 okes, and in 1837, 137,510 okes.

Iron.—Iron in bars is received at Aleppo from Great Britain, France, and Russia; Marash also produces some. Aleppo consumes 250 cantars annually; that from Marash, being ductile, is preferred for some purposes. British iron is not yet brought into consumption to that extent it is capable of, though its use is on the increase. Damascus imported, in 1836, 328 cantars.

Tin.—Most of the tin consumed is brought from Great Britain; 25 to 30 cantars are used in Aleppo, and 80 or 90 sent thence to Mesopotamia. The consumption of Damascus, with that sent to Bagdad, is about 150 cantars. In 1836-7, Aleppo received from England 163 barrels, containing 7,335 rottoli; ruling prices 24 to 28 piastres; one third for Aleppo,

the rest for the interior. Damascus imported in 1836, 4,533 okes, and in 1837, 5,055.

Salammoniac.—8 cantars, or 1,600 okes, are annually required for Damascus, chiefly from Britain; whence Aleppo also received, in 1836–7, 2,450 rottoli; ruling prices 24 to 26 piastres. One third is consumed at Aleppo, the rest goes into Mesopotamia and the interior. Damascus received in 1836, 1,128 okes, and in 1837, 3,794.

Tin plates.—The Aleppo consumption is extremely limited. Damascus uses but 400 cases annually. In 1836–7, Aleppo received from England 84 cases of 225 plates each; ruling prices 250 to 280 piastres per case. Two thirds used at Aleppo, the rest in the interior. Damascus imported in 1836, 106 boxes, and in 1837, 169.

Woollen cloths.—None are received from England; a very small and unsuccessful trial has been made, both at Aleppo and at Damascus. Syria is supplied from France with the Languedoc cloths, and some are received from Trieste, of the Belgium manufacture, which are fast taking the place of the former. In 1836–7, Aleppo received from France 398 bales, of 12 pieces each, of various qualities; each bale valued at 4,000 to 6,000, and as high as 80,000 piastres; half is used at Aleppo, half is exported to the east. Only a bale or two are imported from Italy. Germany sent 44 bales through Trieste, of 12 pieces each, and valued at 8,000 to 10,000 piastres per bale. It is similarly disposed of. Damascus, in 1836, imported 6,401 pieces, in 1837, 2,819.

Silk goods.—Of manufactured silks, none are received from Great Britain. Aleppo imported, in 1836–7, from Lyons, only 10 cases, each of 10 pieces of 35 pikes each; ruling prices 10 to 60 piastres per pike. French silks are not consumed at Aleppo, or in Mesopotamia, but they are generally purchased by the Persians. Damascus imported, in 1836, none, in 1837, 1,101 pikes.

Tarbonches, or red skull-caps.—None are received from England. Aleppo had from France, in 1836–7, 64 cases manufactured at Tunis. Each case has 50 dozen; ruling prices 200 to 400 piastres per dozen. The total quantity imported is 3,200 dozen, half for Aleppo, half for the interior. From Italy came 255 cases, generally Tuscan, each case of 70 dozen, equal to 17,850 dozen; ruling prices 70 to 120 piastres per dozen; one third for Aleppo, the rest for the interior. The Egyptian government manufactured what were wanted for the Egyptian army. Damascus imported, in 1836, 15,142 dozen, in 1837, 11,291.

Paper, for writing and common use, comes chiefly from Italy and France. Aleppo imported, in 1836–7, from France 280 bales of wrapping paper, of 30 reams each, at 10 to 12 piastres per ream; half for Aleppo, half for the interior. From Italy were received 166 bales, of 20 reams each, 25 to 40 piastres per ream, which met the same disposal. Damascus imported, in 1836, 19,299 reams of writing, and 5,940 of wrapping paper, and in 1837, 10,540, and 2,436.

Glass ware.—None comes from England; it is imported by Trieste from Bohemia. It is generally common ware, though some fine specimens are consumed by the higher orders. Aleppo received, in 1836–7, from Germany, 50 cases, which were disposed of there, being sold in retail to people coming from the interior, and a small portion is also sent to Bagdad.

Coral.—The markets of Syria are wholly supplied with manufactured coral from Genoa. Aleppo received, in 1836–7, 25 cases, of 10,000 to

50,000 piastres value. About 8 to 10 cases are sold in Aleppo, to the Persians and Bedawin, and the remainder is sent to Bagdad and Persia—say one third at Aleppo, and two thirds exported. Damascus imported in 1836, 45 okes, in 1837, 167 okes.

Slave trade.—“It is not carried on in Syria to a great extent. In the houses of the opulent a few negroes are seen, and among the wealthy Moslems generally one black eunuch at least, but the annual importation is small and diminishing. The supplies come down the Nile, and are shipped at Alexandria. Black slaves are never employed for field labor in any part of Syria. For household purposes they are seldom engaged, except in the harems, there being a sufficient supply of domestic servants, which, in Egypt, cannot be found among the native Arab races. The black slaves who are fortunate enough to be purchased for the more opulent Moslems, are well treated, and frequently comfortably settled by their masters, after a certain period of service. Their intermarriage with whites is not discouraged.

White slaves.—“The price of these has considerable augmented in Syria since the Circassian war, in consequence of the diminished importation. Dr. Bowring saw a Georgian Mameluke, of about 10 years old, sold at Nabulus for 7,000 piastres, equal to £70 sterling. One of the happy consequences of the non-arrival of slaves is, that the motives to the preservation of life are greatly increased by its increased value. The paternal ties are weakened in countries where the loss of children can be easily supplied by the purchase of slaves, and where the distinctions between the bondman and the free are very slight—so slight that the Mamelukes of a master are frequently more advanced than his own children, towards whom the habits of polygamy also seem to weaken the bonds of affection.”

ORIENTAL CHARACTER, &c.

“There is in the inertness of the oriental character, a great impediment to commercial development. The habits of the people are opposed to activity, and the motives which elsewhere lead to the gradual, however slow, accumulation of property, are faint and insufficient; for the rights of property are but vaguely recognised, and a continuity of effort in any case whatever, is of very rare occurrence. The examples are few in which opulence is reached by a continuous dedication of energy and attention to a given end. Most of the wealth possessed by the Mussulmans has been the result of conquest—or of the power of oppression, or of some fortuitous and accidental circumstances. It rarely happens that either agriculture, or manufactures, or commerce, is the source of a Mohammedan’s opulence. Slow and careful accumulation is a rare virtue in the east. Where fortune visits, her visits are sudden and liberal; but as every thing is held by a slight and uncertain tenure, the possession of one day is succeeded by the poverty of the next; and if there be, as there almost universally is, a want of those untired exertions whereby, in Christian nations, men so frequently amass riches, still more is there a want of that prudence and foresight which check the march of destruction. No element in the Mussulman character is more opposed to the sound commercial principle, than their indifference to the progress of decay, their unwillingness to repair the ravages of time. Even when a little attention and a little expense would prevent a building or an establishment from

falling into ruin, nothing is done to arrest the march of destruction. If an edifice be shaken with an earthquake, it is abandoned—it is seldom or never raised again on its foundations; that which is overthrown is never rescued or renovated. A ruined building, like a felled oak, remains in the dust forever. Even in the populous parts of some of the great cities of Syria, the heaps of ruins which have been left in the pathways by successive earthquakes, have not been removed. A few hours' labor would clear the wrecks away, but the passengers prefer to clamber up and down the piles of stones and fragments, rather than to displace them. So little disposition is there to alter or to interfere with what has been, that," continues Mr. Bowring, "we found the apartments of the castle of Aleppo in precisely the state in which they were abandoned to the conquerors; the halls strewed with armor, covered with broken bows, quivers, and arrows in tens of thousands, and numberless despatches with the sultan's signet, still scattered about the floor.

"Added to these obstacles, and operating in the same direction, the unchangeableness of the Mohammedan usages and institutions, is an almost invariable impediment to the development of commercial prosperity. The merchant is rarely an honored being. Those who wield the power of the sword and the authority of *the book*, the warrior and the ulema, are the two really distinguished races of society. All productive labor, all usefully employed capital, is regarded as belonging to something mean and secondary. In the ports of Syria, the presence of Europeans has modified, to some extent, the commercial usages of the country; but in the towns of the interior, in the great depôts, the bazaars represent the same system of commerce which existed many hundred years ago. Huge kahns receive the foreign merchants, who come with caravans from remote regions, and carry on their trades, both of sale and purchase, precisely as it was conducted by their forefathers. The bazaars are divided into different regions, such as that of the druggists, of spicemen, of the woollen-drapers, of the silk merchants, of the traders in cotton goods, the shoemaker, the garment seller, the ironmongers, and a variety of others. Each generally has a separate street for its particular department, and the sale and purchase of goods are carried on with considerable formality. The buyer goes to the shop of the seller—is treated to coffee and a pipe, and he then discusses the merits and the price of the merchandise in which he trades. The bargain is generally of slow arrangement. Independently of the bazaars, there are certain days on which auctions are held, and all sorts of goods are paraded up and down for public sale."

"But notwithstanding all impediments and difficulties, wherever repose and peace have allowed the capabilities of Syria to develop themselves, production and commerce have taken rapid strides. One of the immediate consequences of Ibrahim Pasha's conquest was, a sense of security, the establishment of an improved police, and an immediate extension of trading relations, principally due to the presence of Europeans. When the policy of peace was interrupted, commercial intercourse was deranged; the amount of imports and exports diminished, the number of merchants from foreign countries sensibly lessened, and the hopes of progressive improvement were all checked and disappointed. But both for agriculture and manufactures, Syria has great capabilities. Were fiscal exactions checked and regulated, could labor pursue its peaceful vocations, were the aptitude which the country and its inhabitants present for the development of

industry called into play, the whole face of the land would soon be changed. It appeared to me," continues Mr. Bowring, "that there was a great disposition to activity among large bodies of the peasantry, and much skill among the manufacturing laborers of the towns. There would, if properly encouraged, be no want of demand for European articles, nor of the means of paying for them ; and among the articles most required, those furnished by British industry are particularly prominent.

" But the articles for which the sale would be most likely to extend, are such as, having undergone a process of manufacture as raw materials, lend themselves to further and final manufacture,—such as iron, copper, and tin plates for the making of sundry vessels ; threads and yarns of silk, flax, woollen and cotton, &c. These and other such would be suited by oriental skill to oriental taste, better than western ignorance of those tastes could possibly fashion them. I noticed a reflux of opinion favorable to the manufactures of the country, they having already greatly benefited by the import of the half-wrought materials to which I have been referring ; for in the finishing of most articles, the Syrians are not wanting in dexterity and experience ; they have, like all orientals, a pretty accurate sense of the beauty and arrangement of forms and colors ; the patterns they work, though not very varied, are generally graceful ; their dyeing is excellent ; their artisans dexterous and intelligent. They use, for the most part, a rude machinery, but their wages are high enough to keep them in tolerable condition ; and were some of the modern improvements* introduced, there would be a revival of manufacturing prosperity."

ART. IV.—COMMERCIAL VOYAGES AND DISCOVERIES.

CHAPTER IV.

VOYAGE OF PEDRO ALVAREZ CABRAL.—VOYAGE OF JUAN DE NUEVA.—SECOND VOYAGE OF VASCO DE GAMA.

A NEW expedition to India was immediately resolved upon, and Pedro Alvarez was selected to command. It consisted of thirteen vessels, and twelve hundred men, besides a goodly missionary establishment of priests, monks, &c., who had orders "to begin with preaching, and if they found that would not do, to then try the sword." They set sail on the ninth of March, 1500, and after being drawn well over to the west, on the twenty-fourth of April discovered strange land, to which was afterward given the name of Brazil. After landing at several points, and setting up stone crosses, and having communication with the natives, whom they found well disposed, they left two criminals to inquire into the state of the country, and resumed their voyage to the cape. A few days after, they saw a large comet, and encountered a terrible tornado, by which four ships, with all their men, were lost, in one of which was the celebrated Bartholomew Diaz, the discoverer of the Cape of Good Hope.

After a succession of storms, the formidable cape was passed, and the fleet came to the neighborhood of Sofala, where they captured two Moorish vessels. Passing on to Yuiloa, they made a fruitless attempt to trade with the king, who at first, taking them for Moors, promised to pay in

* Such as the Jacquard loom, for instance.

gold for their merchandise, but who, when he found out they were Christians, pretended that the goods did not suit his market, and the Portuguese were compelled to go on to Melinda. Here they were again well treated, supplied with refreshments, and with two pilots for Kalicut.

On the thirteenth of September, Cabral arrived off Kalicut. Much time was lost from the mutual distrust on both sides, but at length hostages were exchanged, and Cabral visited the samorin, taking with him the present from the king of Portugal, which consisted of several pieces of rich silver plate, cushions of cloth of gold, a carpet, velvets, gold lace, and some pieces of tapestry. The samorin gave permission to establish a factory, and promised to load the fleet with spices and drugs ; but the Moors again interfered, as in the case of De Gama, and continual quarrels and misunderstandings took place. The Moors, resolved to bring matters to a crisis, openly violated an order the samorin had given Cabral, for the exclusive purchase of spices, and commenced loading one of their vessels before the cargo of but two of the Portuguese ships had been completed. Cabral, judging that the Moors were acting by the connivance of the samorin, sent to complain of the breach of faith, and the delay which it occasioned. The samorin pretended to be highly incensed, and sent word that he might have liberty to search the Moorish ships that had violated his order. Wishing to bring matters to blows, the Moors commenced lading a ship openly. For some time Cabral refused to take any notice of her, but at length, urged to it by pretended friends, he sent his boats and took possession of her. As soon as this was known, the Moors assembled in a tumultuous manner, and inciting the populace of the city to aid them, they proceeded to the palace of the samorin, and demanded and obtained permission of the weak despot to attack the Portuguese factory. The first party of Moors that advanced were so few that the Portuguese thought it necessary merely to defend the gates with their cloaks and rapiers, but the numbers rapidly increased, and they were compelled to mount to the walls and use their cross-bows. At length they were pressed so hard, and by such an overwhelming force, who were getting up battering engines against the walls, that they were compelled, as a last resort, to make a sally by a gate leading to the beach, in hopes of escaping by the boats. They were closely followed by the crowd, and after performing prodigies of valor, and slaughtering an immense number of their enemies, twenty of them succeeded in getting clear. Among the survivors, was the famous Duarte Pachaco Pereyra,* who first distinguished himself in this expedition, and whose desperate valor soon rendered him famous throughout all Europe and the east, and the hero of a hundred ballads.

Cabral took a speedy revenge. He attacked several ships that were in the harbor, killed six hundred men, seized upon their cargoes of spices and drugs, and burnt the ships in sight of the enraged Moors. He then

* The exploits of the gallant Pachaco equal the most extravagant actions of the knights of romance. No disparity of force was too great for him. With one hundred and sixty men, and two or three small vessels, he repeatedly attacked a large force that had been brought against the king of Cochin, an ally of the Portuguese. He destroyed their ships, with several thousand men, and attacking them by land also, with the aid of three hundred natives, he at one time routed fifteen thousand men, and burnt several towns. At the end of five months, his enemies had lost twenty thousand men out of fifty thousand, and were compelled to give up the contest.

warped his ships close into the town, and commenced battering it with his cannon. Houses and temples soon tumbled about the heads of the terrified inhabitants, who, with their sovereign and his treacherous friends, the Moors, were compelled to fly into the country. After amusing himself in this way for a few hours, Cabral got under weigh and stood down the coast, in the direction of Cape Comorin, the southern extremity of Hindostan, until he came to Cochin. Here he was well received. He at once made a treaty with the king, who was not a little pleased with their treatment of his enemy, the samorin, and afforded them every facility for trade. An invitation also came from the kings of Kananor and Koulan, to visit them. To the first he paid a visit, and completed his lading by taking in four hundred quintals of cinnamon. Receiving an ambassador to the king of Portugal, he commenced his return voyage. After a variety of adventures, escaping a fleet sent after him by the king of Kalicut, encountering severe storms, which separated the vessels of his fleet, and capturing a Moorish vessel, he reached the coast of Africa, stopped to refresh at Mozambique, doubled the Cape of Good Hope, touched at the Cape de Verd, and arrived at Lisbon the thirty-first of July, 1501. Of the fleet that accompanied him, only six ships ever returned.

The voyage of Juan de Nueva was less disastrous. The expedition started several months before Cabral returned, and as it was supposed that amicable relations had been established with the samorin, and other Indian and African princes, it was not thought that much force was required, and accordingly De Nueva was furnished with only three ships and a caravel, carrying four hundred men. Touching at San Blas, they found in an old shoe a letter that had been written and deposited there by Pedro de Atayda, one of Cabral's captains, giving an account of the state of affairs at Kalicut. Thus warned in time, De Nueva directed his course to Cochin, where he found the factory that had been established by Cabral. The Moorish merchants exerted themselves to depreciate the Portuguese goods, and succeeded so far that De Nueva was unable to purchase a cargo, except for gold, and was compelled to go to Kananor, where the same difficulty awaited him, but which was obviated by the king, who went security for a thousand quintals of pepper, fifty of ginger, and three hundred of cinnamon.

While lying here a large fleet of *paraws* and boats, sent by the samorin, came into the bay to attack him, but the Portuguese used their great guns so skilfully and vigorously that the samorin's force was driven off with great loss, while the Christians lost not a man. After this exploit, De Nueva set sail for Portugal, where he safely arrived with all his ships.

The difficulties that Cabral had had with the samorin, showed the necessity of an efficient force, if the Portuguese intended to continue the trade, which was so lucrative, that even Cabral's voyage, so disastrous to men and ships, yielded a fair profit. It was accordingly resolved that a powerful force should be fitted out, part of which should be employed in trading, and part in blockading the mouth of the Red Sea, and cutting off the Moors, who were the chief cause of all their troubles. This fleet consisted of twenty sail. At first the command of it was given to Cabral, but it was decided that the exigency required the talents and energy of the great Vasco de Gama, who was invested with the rank of admiral of the eastern seas, with great pomp.

After touching at the usual points upon the African coast, capturing a

number of trading ships, and meeting with divers adventures, which our space compels us to omit, he arrived off the coast of India, near the territory of Kananor. Here he met a ship of great bulk, called the Meri, belonging to the sultan of Egypt, which was very richly laden, and full of Moors of distinction, who were going on a pilgrimage to Mecca. This ship being taken after a vigorous resistance, De Gama went on board and commanded the Moors to produce their merchandise, threatening, if they did not, to have them thrown overboard. They pretended that their riches were all at Kalicut; but one of them having been flung into the sea, bound hand and foot, the rest through fear delivered up their goods. All the children were carried into the admiral's ship,* and the remainder of the plunder given up to the sailors. After which Stephen de Gama, by order of the admiral, set fire to the ship. But the Moors having broken up the hatches under which they were confined, and quenched the flames, Stephen was ordered to lay them aboard. The Moors, desperate with apprehension of their danger, received them with great resolution, and even attempted to burn the other ships. Night coming on, he was obliged to desist without doing his work; but the admiral gave orders that the vessel should be watched, that the passengers might not, under favor of darkness, escape to the land, which was near. All night long the Moors called upon Mohammed to help them. In the morning, Stephen was sent to execute his former orders. He boarded the ship, and setting fire to it, drove them aft, where they defended themselves with great vigor. Many of the Moors, when they saw the flames approach them, leaped into the sea with hatchets in their hands, and swimming, attacked the boats. However, most of them were at length slain, and the others drowned or burnt up in the ship, which soon after sank; so that of three hundred persons, among whom were thirty women, not one escaped the sword, fire, or water."

Such a story as this is enough to make us deny De Gama's right to the epithet humane, which is frequently bestowed, did we not make proper allowance for the barbarity of his times. Besides, it amounts to a trifle compared with the atrocities which marked the course of some of his successors in their career of conquest and crime.

Arrived at Kananor, the admiral sent a message to the king, that he desired an interview with him. "For this purpose a wooden bridge was made, which entered a good way into the water. This was covered with carpets, and at the end towards land, a wooden house was built, furnished also with carpets. The king arrived first, accompanied by a large body-guard of nobles, with trumpets sounding and other instruments playing before him. Soon after the admiral came, with all the boats of the fleet furnished with flags, musical instruments, and ordnance, under the discharge of which he landed. He was conducted to the door of the house by a body of nobles, where the king received him, embraced him, and they then walked to the hall of audience. At this interview, a treaty of friendship and commerce was concluded, and a factory granted at Kananor, in consequence of which De Gama laded some of his ships, and then departed for Kalicut."

Arrived at Kalicut, he captured several vessels in port, but made no

* According to De Faria, to make them all friars, as an equivalent for one Portuguese, who had turned Mohammedan. Their number was twenty, and they were attached to St. Mary's church, at Belem, about a league from Lisbon.

demonstration against the town for several days, in order to give the samorin time to make any overtures of peace. At length a Moor, dressed in the garb of a Franciscan friar, came on board with a message from the samorin, to which De Gama refused to listen, unless, as a preliminary, the king would agree to indemnify him for the goods destroyed when he suffered the Portuguese factory to be attacked. Several messages passed to no purpose, when De Gama informed the samorin that he would give him to the hour of noon to make a satisfactory reply. "The samorin, influenced by the Moors, returned no answer. Wherefore, when the time had expired, De Gama ordered a gun to be shot off, which was a signal for his captains to hang the captive Malabars, who were distributed through the fleet. Being dead, he ordered their feet and hands to be cut off, and sent in a paraw, guarded by two armed boats, with a letter for the samorin, written in Arabic, giving him to understand that in such manner he proposed to reward him for his repeated breaches of faith and deceitful dealings, and that as for the king his master's goods, he would recover them a hundred fold. After this he ordered three ships to advance as near the shore as possible in the night; and next morning their ordnance was played without intermission upon the city, whereby many houses were demolished, and among the rest the king's palace. This done, he departed for Cochin, leaving Vincent Sodre, with six ships, to scour the coast and obstruct the Moorish trade."

At Cochin, De Gama was received with great kindness and pomp. He delivered to the king a letter from his royal master, thanking him for his kindness to Cabral, together with a magnificent present, consisting of a crown of gold, set with brilliants, gold collar, silver fountains and basins, tapestry, cloth of gold, velvets, and a splendid crimson silk tent. The king was much pleased with his present. He entered into a most favorable commercial treaty, by which was settled the rates that spices were to be delivered at, and a Portuguese factory allowed. He also gave a present in return, consisting of gold bracelets, precious stones, scarfs of silver tissue, Bengal calico, and "a stone as big as a walnut, good against all poisons."

While lying in this port, a message came from the samorin to say that if he would return to Kalicut he should have the privilege of trading, and that all their difficulties should be amicably settled. The admiral was suspicious of some snare, but contrary to the advice of his captains, he resolved to go with only his own ship, depending for help in case of need upon Sodre's squadron cruising off Kalicut. As soon as he made his appearance, the samorin, finding that he was unaccompanied by his fleet, resolved to capture him if possible. Thirty large paraws were ordered to attack him, and the admiral was obliged to cut his cable and stand out to sea. Here the paraws followed him, and would probably have captured him had it not been for the fortunate appearance of Sodre with his ships. Finding that his scheme had failed, the samorin exerted himself to detach the king of Cochin from his alliance with the Portuguese. He reproached him with his preference for Christian pirates, and tried to stir up the nobles of his court by bribery and intrigue, in which last he partially succeeded; but failing with the king himself, he resolved to commence an attack upon his neighbor as soon as the absence of the Portuguese should render it safe to do so; and in the mean time he busily employed himself in fitting out

a fleet of large vessels to intercept De Gama on his return, when he would, it was supposed, be deeply laden and unable to work his ships.

At parting, the king of Cochin informed him of all that the samorin had been doing, and gave the strongest assurances of his continued friendship for the Portuguese. De Gama promised him that he would be in no danger from the samorin, as the king his master would give him enough to do to defend himself without attacking others. Setting sail for Kananor, De Gama soon encountered the fleet which had been prepared by the samorin. It advanced towards him with some show of gallantry, but Sodre, with two other vessels, pushing on before the rest to receive them, attacked them with so much fury that the Moors were compelled to leap from their ships to escape their rage. Two large ships were captured, and three hundred Moors put to the sword. The other ships fled towards the land, where the Portuguese were prevented from following them by fear of the shoals. In the captured vessels there was much rich merchandise, and among other things a gold idol* weighing thirty pounds. The eyes were emeralds, and on the breast was an enormous ruby, and other precious stones.

At Kananor, De Gama completed his lading of spices, and leaving Sodre with his squadron of ships, with orders to worry the Moors and their friend the samorin as much as possible, and protect the king of Cochin, he set out on the twentieth of December, 1503, for home. After a stormy voyage in which some of his ships were separated from the fleet, he arrived in Portugal, where he was received with great and deserved honors. In a few days after, Stephen de Gama, whose ship had been dismasted in a storm, arrived in the Tagus. This expedition was not only glorious, but exceedingly profitable. Their spices yielded an enormous profit, and yet were sold so much lower than the same articles brought overland, that the Venetian was obliged to succumb to the Lisbon market.

As it may be interesting to some to know the ultimate fate of the hero who had contributed so much to the success of these most brilliant commercial enterprises, we will cite a note to one of the translations of Castanneda : "Don Vasco de Gama, now Count Videgueyra, (one of King Manuel's own titles, which he had transferred to him,) was, in the year 1524, appointed viceroy of India by King John III. He set sail with fourteen ships and three thousand fighting men. Three were lost on the voyage, with all the men of two. Being in the sea of Cambaya, in a dead calm, of a sudden the vessels tossed so that all gave themselves up for gone, every one casting about how to save himself. One leaped overboard, thinking to escape that way, and was drowned. Such as lay sick of fevers, were cured with the fright. Don Vasco perceiving that it was the effect of an earthquake, cried out aloud, 'Courage, my friends, for the sea trembles for fear of you, who are upon it.' To make amends for these misfortunes, Don George de Menesis, one of the captains, took a great ship of Mecca, with sixty thousand crowns. The new viceroy

* The term "Moor" is very indefinitely used by writers on this subject. It ought to be confined to the Arabian and Mohammedan merchants, and others residing in, or trading to, the cities of India. In this case it is decidedly a mistake, as a Moorish or Mohammedan crew would never tolerate an idol among them. The population of Kalicut consisted of a large number of these Mohammedans, with original natives, and a good proportion calling themselves Armenian Christians, and professing most of the doctrines of the Armenian church.

being arrived at Goa, visited a few forts, and gave the necessary orders for regulating affairs; but had not time to put any of his great designs in execution, for he died on Christmas eve, after he had held the government three months. He was of a middle stature, somewhat gross, and ruddy complexion. He is painted with a black cap, cloak and breeches edged with velvet, all slashed, through which appears the crimson lining; the doublet of crimson satin, and over it his armor inlaid with gold. De Gama had a natural boldness for any great undertaking. When angry he was terrible, patient under fatigue, and hasty in execution of justice; in fine, fit for all that was intrusted to him as captain, discoverer, or viceroy."

ART. V.—REDUCTION OF PRICE AND RATE OF DUTY.

REMARKS ON THE FALLACY OF THE DOCTRINE THAT, BY REDUCTION OF PRICE AND RATE OF DUTY, CONSUMPTION CAN BE INCREASED IN A GREATER PROPORTION THAN PRICE IS DECREASED, AND SO MUCH SO AS TO PRODUCE INCREASED REVENUE.

LORD (then Mr.) Brougham, in his speech on the opening of Parliament, February, 1825, speaking of duties as affecting the revenue, is reported, in the London Packet, to have said: "I then, as I thought, successfully showed that what Dean Swift had observed of the arithmetic of revenue was fully illustrated in the result, viz., that two and two did not make four on customary articles. With respect to the produce of the last laid wine duties, it was manifest that two and two did not make even three. In the article of coffee the same result was established, though by a different process. On coffee, the duties were reduced, and the consequence was, that an increased consumption gave you a much greater revenue than the large impost produced; while on the increase of the wine duties, there was such a falling off in the consumption as to lower the amount of revenue below that which was actually forthcoming on the lesser imposition." And in the Edinburgh Review for January, 1840, article "Post-office Reform," page 297, there occur the following passages.

"The degree in which reduction of postage would operate cannot be accurately estimated; but Mr. Hill has indicated a guiding principle which points at a *minimum* of increase, leaving its *maximum* still to be ascertained. His position is, that no reduction hitherto made in the price of any article in general demand, has diminished the total amount of public expenditure upon that article. And he adduces the following evidence in proof of its correctness:—

"1. The price of soap, for instance, has recently* fallen by about one eighth; the consumption in the same time has increased by one third. Tea, again, the price of which, since the opening of the China trade, has fallen by about one sixth, has increased in consumption by almost a half. The consumption of silk goods, which subsequently to the year 1823, have fallen in price by about one fifth, has more than doubled. The consumption of coffee, the price of which, subsequently to 1823, has fallen

* That is, at the close of 1836.

about one fourth, has more than tripled. And the consumption of cotton goods, the price of which, during the last twenty years, has fallen by nearly one half, has in the same time been fourfolded.'—*Post-office Reform*, p. 70.

" " 2. The sale of newspapers for the twelve months before the late reduction in stamps was 35,576,056,* at an average price, say 7d., costing the public £1,037,634.

" " 3. For the twelve months subsequent to the reduction it was 53,496,207,† at an average price, say of 4½d., costing the public £1,058,779.

" " 3. The annual number of advertisements before the late reduction in the advertisement duty, was 1,010,000 at an average price, say of 6s., costing the public £303,000.

" " It is now 1,670,000, at an average price, say of 4s., costing the public £334,000.

" " 4. The number of persons paying for admission to the Tower was, in the ten months prior to the late reduction 9,568, at 3s. each, (including the warden's fee)=£1,426.

" " In the ten months subsequent to the reduction it was 37,431, at 1s. each=£1,871.

" " The rule established by these facts, viz, that the demand for the article increases in a greater proportion than the price decreases; so that, if one thousand are sold at 1s., many more than two thousand would be sold at 6d., is, it is believed, without exception.'—*Third Report of the Select Committee on Postage*."

These are great authorities; and it is perhaps rather a hazardous thing to say that the observation of the learned Dean, viz, that two and two did not make four on customary articles—that is, as illustrated by the showing of the great statesman, that increased consumption and consequent increased revenue resulted from decreased rate of duty—and the rule of the select committee, viz, that the demand for the article increases in a greater proportion than the price decreases, are both founded on erroneous inferences, and alike involve a fallacy. But we believe that they are so; and that the fallacy, like that of the sinking fund, and that of paper money, arises from mistaking the results of *particular* applications of a principle for the result of a *general* application of it; and amounts to a belief that it is possible, by some witchery in the science of political economy, to make two and two *really* make more than four, and falsify the schoolboy's axiom by proving that you *can* both have your cake and eat it.

Of the same nature, too—we remark by the way—as this fallacy, is that of supposing it possible to obtain protection to domestic industry and revenue at the same time, and from the same thing. A rate of duty upon foreign products, be it what it may, can only be *protection* in the degree that it is *prohibition*; and exactly in the degree that it is prohibition it will be *anti-revenue*.

The "rule established" by the showing of the great statesman—for such a rule we understand him to assert—is less in accordance with reason and common sense than that of the select committee. It assumes a much greater degree of increased expenditure as resulting from reduction of rate of duty, than that of the committee assumes as resulting from reduction

* No. 307, Session 1838.

† No. 184, Session 1839.

of price ; but we contend that in the theory of taxation you have no right to assume such increased expenditure at all ; and that no "fact" in apparent proof of either of the rules, but what could be satisfactorily accounted for on other principles, has ever occurred in the practice. We contend that it is perfectly fair, and in strict accordance with reason and common sense, to assume that the public spend just as much money on taxable and other articles as they choose or can afford to spend. And, that exactly that which you give to the government, in the form of taxes, you take from the people, and that which you give back to the people you take from the government. And, that any results not in accordance with these simple and common sense views, are those of anomalies inseparable from the operation of revenue laws.

Among the most prominent of these anomalies are smuggling, speculative supply and demand, and the changing of demand from one article to another.* This last, indeed, is so comprehensive that we shall assume it, in our reasoning, as including *all* anomalies.

When a rate of duty is lessened there takes place a lessening of the motive for smuggling, and a consequent increase of means to purchase the article duty paid. Also, a speculative desire to be the first to bring to market at the reduced price, and a consequent withdrawal of capital from other things for the purpose. And, a changing of demand generally from things which have not been reduced in price, owing to such lessening of duty, to those that have.

These things manifest themselves in the appearance, and with much of the reality of "increased consumption;" but not an increased consumption capable of establishing a rule involving an increased aggregate expenditure ; much less a rule involving an increase capable of producing an increase of revenue. The increase arises mainly from the giving back to the people. We repeat, that the public spend all that they choose or can afford to spend on taxable or other articles,—on wine, on soap, on tea, on silk goods, on coffee, on cotton goods, on newspapers, on sightseeing—on every thing. Give them as much more for their money as you can ; doubtless they will consume it ; but away with the notion of increased aggregate expenditure and increased revenue.

But granting, for the sake of the argument, the right to this assumption, there is, surely, still, in the noble lord's showing, a great and palpable fallacy. For if the "lesser imposition" of duty gave the "greater revenue," why would not the lesser still give the greater still ? and, by parity of reasoning, why would not the least possible imposition of duty give the greatest revenue ? In illustration, let us suppose the consumption of wine to be 20 pipes, at a cost to the consumer of £50 per pipe, of which £20 per pipe is for duty. The expenditure would then be £1,000, and the revenue £400. Then suppose you reduce the duty to £19 per pipe, and by so doing you increase the consumption to 22 pipes ; the expenditure would then be £1,078, and the revenue £418 ; that is, the public have been induced to spend £78 more on wine, and the "lesser imposition" of duty has given the "greater revenue." So far, so good. But then, as far

* The fluctuating action of the "credit system"—that is to say, of paper money—is also an anomaly. It causes a premature increase of the means of the public to increase expenditure, which is always followed by a proportionate decrease.

as the argument is concerned, unless you assume that, in the theory of taxation, there is a point, in determining the rate of duty, that is just that which is not too much, and just that which is not too little, and that you have now attained that point, you are precisely in the same situation that you were. Then suppose you reduce the duty to £18 per pipe, and by so doing you increase the consumption to 24 pipes; the expenditure would then be £1,152, and the revenue £432—that is, the public have been induced to spend £74 more on wine, and the lesser still has given the greater still. And it is clear that, as far as the argument is concerned, unless you assume this point somewhere, you might go on in this way until you came to the least possible imposition of duty; and we scarcely need say that to suppose that that could give the greatest revenue, is a manifest absurdity.

The “rule established” of the select committee, though more in accordance with reason and common sense, is any thing but a rule “*without exception.*” To be that, it must result from a general application of a principle, and not from particular applications of it. “These facts” must be made to prove that, if *all* articles were to decrease in price, the demand would increase in a greater proportion than the price would decrease; or, that the demand for those which did not decrease in price would remain the same; or, that the decrease in price, whether it resulted from reduction of rate of duty to the government, or of price merely, independent of duty, would *necessarily* increase the will and the power of the public to increase the “demand” beyond what the increased means—that is, the giving back to the people—resulting from such reduction, would enable them to do; since, without this proof, it is a fair and just inference from the nature of things, that the more than two thousand which would be sold at 6d. would be but the result of the consequent changing of demand from things that had not been reduced in price to those that had; or, of the increase of the will and the power of the public by the natural increase of population and wealth.

In illustration of this, let us suppose *all* taxable things divided into two parts, equally desirable and applicable as to the various purposes of life, and in a perfectly equal position as to consumption, price, rate of duty, expenditure, &c. &c.* and let us state this position in the following tabular form: See the first of the two following tables, which we will call the original position. Then let us suppose the rate of duty on the first part reduced to 1.* This change in the proportion of rate of duty will also change the proportion of total price; and the change in the proportion of total price, viz., from as 5 to 5 to as 4 to 5, will, we contend, by the all-pervading action and determinate tendency of money-price towards a level, change the proportion of all the other items of comparison exactly to the extent that will enable the proportion of total price to become equal again. You cannot keep the price of one part 4, and the other 5, because we have assumed equal desirability and applicability in them; they will both get to be $4\frac{1}{2}$. The demand, price, and expenditure of the one will be increased, and that of the other decreased, until the level of total price is obtained. And the

* This equality is by no means necessary to the argument; it merely renders the illustration easier to be made and understood.

† The reasoning would be just the same if we supposed it *advanced* to 4.

increase and decrease of price will be in that part of it which we have called price without duty. We will also state this position in a tabular form.—See the last of the two following tables, which we will call the changed position.

Original Position.

	<i>Consumption.</i>	<i>Price with-out duty.</i>	<i>Duty.</i>	<i>Total Price.</i>	<i>Expenditure.</i>	<i>Revenue.</i>
1st part . .	1,000	3	2	5	5,000	2,000
2d part . .	1,000	3	2	5	5,000	2,000

Changed Position.

	<i>Increase of Consumption.</i>	<i>Decrease of Consumption.</i>	<i>Price without duty.</i>	<i>Total Expen- diture.</i>	<i>Rev. of Revenue.</i>
1st part	1,296*	296	... 3½	1 4½ 5,832	1,296 704
2d part	926	... 74	2½ 2 4½	4,168	1,852 148

Let us contemplate these tabular views for awhile, and see if we can discover in them aught to "confirm, or shake, or make a faith" in these various opinions upon the subject. We see in part the first of the changed position, that by reducing the rate of duty one half where, as seen in the original position, the consumption was 1,000 and the revenue 2,000, that, as at first sight it would seem natural to suppose would be the case, the revenue has not decreased 1,000; it has only decreased 704—two and two has *not* made four on customary articles.

If the learned Dean meant any thing at all by his observation, he meant precisely that which this hypothetical changed position shows. Increase or decrease of rate of duty is not followed by proportionate increase or decrease of amount of revenue—that is, by proportionate increase or decrease of the taking from or the giving back to the people. Reasoning from analogy, precisely as, in the operation of the national debt, the receivers of the interest pay themselves a part of that which they receive, so the government, in the process of taking from and giving back to the people, give back to and take from the people a part of that which they so take and give.

We will illustrate this further by looking at this changed position as a whole. The reader will perceive that there are in it three columns more than in the original position, viz: increase of consumption, decrease of consumption, and decrease of revenue. Now we contend that the 222 increase of total consumption, and which is the difference between the increase in the first part, and the decrease in the second, is exactly the 852 decrease of revenue in the two parts. 222 at the price of 4½ is just the difference between 1,000 at a duty of 2, and 1,000 at a duty of 1—viz, 1,000.* But the government does not lose 1,000; two and two do not make four on customary articles; for in the process of *giving* back the 1,000, it *takes* back 148, and therefore only loses 852; that is, it loses the difference between 2,000 at a duty of 2, and 1,296 at a duty of 1, and 926 at a duty of 2—which we will state thus:

* This proportion of 1296 to 926, viz, as 7 to 5, we assume as a consequence of the changed position of price without duty, which change, we contend, is the effect of the determination of total price, or cost to the consumer, to become equal.

† 222 at 4½ is only 999. This and two or three similar errors, the reader who takes the trouble to examine the calculations, will perceive arises from omitting fractional parts, and taking the nearest whole number, and does not at all impair the illustration.

2,000 at 2 is	4,000
1,296 at 1 is	1,296 {
926 at 2 is	1,852 }

Difference, 852

and which is given back to the people in the form of an increased consumption, in part the first, of 296 ; which increase is the combined result of the increase of "demand" by the increase of means arising from the lessening of duty, and the withdrawal of it from things which have not decreased in price, to those that have—which we will state thus :

222, increase of total consumption resulting from lessening of duty ; that is, the giving back to the people, at $3\frac{1}{2}$, the price without duty, is

777

The difference between 74, "demand" drawn, by the determinate tendency of money-price towards a level, from things which have not decreased in price at a duty of 2, to those which have at a duty of 1, is

74

851

But it is with the great statesman's illustration of the observation, rather than with the observation itself, that we have to do ; though we have, we think, clearly shown its true meaning. Of that illustration, as establishing a rule, our hypothesis shows the utter unsoundness. There can be no increased consumption capable of giving an increased revenue, without an increase of expenditure, to an extent that, as an abstract proposition, renders the idea utterly absurd. We will, however, see how far it illustrates the rule of the select committee.

We have said that the fallacy which we are attempting to prove, arises from mistaking the results of *particular* applications of a principle, for the result of a *general* application of it, and we shall see how far our hypothesis will bear this out. We see in part the first of the changed position, that consumption, that is, "demand," has increased from 1,000 to 1,296, viz, 30 per cent, and price only decreased from 5 to $4\frac{1}{2}$, viz, 11 per cent ; that is, demand has increased in a greater proportion than price has decreased, and the rule, *so far, is* established. But, then, the expenditure has increased from 5,000 to 5,832, viz, 17 per cent ; and we have contended that in the theory of taxation, you have no right to assume such increased expenditure at all, and that no fact in apparent proof of it, but what could be satisfactorily accounted for on other principles, has ever occurred in the practice. What those other principles are in this case, we shall see by again looking at this changed position as a whole. We see that the total consumption has increased from 2,000 to 2,222, viz, 11 per cent, and the price decreased from 10 to 9, viz, 11 per cent ; that is, the demand has increased exactly in the proportion that price has decreased ; and the total expenditure is just the same, viz, 10,000. The increase in the first part is precisely the decrease in the second part : and upon this point our illustration entirely depends. We contend that the public spend just as much money as they choose, or can afford to spend, on taxable and other articles ; and that the increased demand, and consequent increased expenditure in a greater proportion than the price has decreased, which the first part of the changed position shows, is but the drawing away from things that have not decreased in price to those that have ; and the

increased demand, *not* in a greater proportion than the price, has decreased, which the position as a whole shows is, as before shown, but the decrease in the revenue. Exactly that which you give back to the people, you take from the government.

But this is mere hypothesis. Let us go to the "facts." The reader will perceive that they are contained in four parcels of evidence adduced by Mr. Hill, in proof of his position, "that no reduction hitherto made in the price of any article in general demand, has diminished the total amount of public expenditure upon that article." And an excellent position it is, and in strict accordance with reason and common sense, which clearly point out, that there are no reasons why it should. But why should it have increased the "total expenditure?" why at all, more than in proportion to the increase of means by the natural increase of population and wealth? Much more, why in a degree capable of producing an increased revenue? If our hypothesis has failed to show the reader how it can (apparently, that is) do the one, and how it can not do either the one or the other, let us see what we can make out of "these facts." Let us open the first parcel and arrange them in the following tabular form:

<i>Article.</i>	<i>Decrease of price.</i>	<i>Increase of consumption.</i>
Soap	$\frac{1}{2}$	$\frac{1}{3}$
Tea	$\frac{1}{6}$	$\frac{1}{2}$
Silk goods	$\frac{1}{5}$	$\frac{4}{5}$
Coffee	$\frac{1}{4}$	$\frac{3}{4}$
Cotton goods	$\frac{1}{2}$	$\frac{1}{2}$

It is clear, however, that we can make nothing out of this, for it gives us no account either of the amount of "public expenditure," or of the rate of duty, both of which are necessary to our purpose; and the statement must go with the reader for what it is worth. No doubt it involves a large increase of expenditure. Had the facts entered into particulars, we might have been able to have formed a judgment. But let us see what we can make out of the second parcel, which we will also state in a tabular form:

<i>No. of news-papers.</i>	<i>Per centage. Increase of papers.</i>	<i>Average price per paper.</i>	<i>Per centage. Decrease of price.</i>
Before reduction, 35,576,056	—	7d.	—
After reduction, 53,496,207	50	4½d.	47
<i>Expenditure.</i>	<i>Per centage. Increase of expenditure.</i>	<i>Duty per paper.</i>	<i>Revenue. Per centage. Decrease of revenue.</i>
Before reduction, £1,037,634	—	3½d.	£481,759 —
After reduction, 1,058,779	2	1d.	222,900 116

Here we have the means of forming a judgment. We have the amount of consumption and of public expenditure and price stated; and the rate of duty is well known, and the amount of revenue, therefore, easily ascertained.* We have all the elements of perfect proof. We doubt if in the entire practice of taxation in England, there is any one "fact" so well calculated to prove the theory as this of newspapers. It is freer from anomalies than any other thing; the impost is through the medium of the stamp-office; smuggling and speculation therefore can have little or nothing to do with it—with withdrawal of demand from other things may, perhaps;

* These, with some per centages, the reader will see, we have added to the table.

but as nearly as possible the true principle of operation stands naked and alone.

Here we see that, during the period stated, consumption, that is, "the demand," has increased 50 per cent, and the price decreased only 47 per cent; but the expenditure has increased 2 per cent, and the amount of revenue decreased 116 per cent. Now increase of demand in a greater proportion than price decreases, can *only* arise from increased expenditure, and will any one for a moment deny, that this "fact" of increased expenditure, upon which the increase of demand depends, cannot be fully and satisfactorily accounted for on other principles; viz., the increased will and power of the public, resulting from the natural increase of population and wealth during the same period? We think not.

Let us contemplate *this* tabular view for a while. It is a "fact," not an hypothesis. We see Mr. Hill's position fully sustained, as, indeed, why should it not be? We see that the amount of public expenditure has not diminished. But how fares it with the rule of the select committee, and the showing of the great statesman? Not a glimpse—no, not one solitary glimpse* of confirmation, either of the one or the other, can there be found in the analysis of this most important fact.

Let us also state the third parcel in a tabular form.

	<i>Number of adver- tisements.</i>	<i>Per centage. Increase of advertisements.</i>	<i>Aver. cost.</i>	<i>Per centage. Decrease of cost.</i>	
Before reduction,	1,010,000	—	6s.	—	
After reduction,	1,670,000	65	4s.	50	
<i>Expenditure.</i>		<i>Per centage. Increase of expenditure.</i>	<i>Duty per advert'nt.</i>	<i>Revenue.</i>	<i>Per centage. Decrease of revenue.</i>
Before reduction,	£303,000	—	3s. 6d.	£176,750	—
After reduction,	334,000	10	1s. 7d.	125,250	41

Here we see demand increased 65 per cent, and price decreased only 50; expenditure increased 10 per cent, and revenue decreased 41. Mr. Hill's position is again fully sustained; and if the reader thinks that the 10 per cent increase of expenditure is more than the increase of population and wealth, during the same period, will account for, and will not admit the force of our reasoning as to anomalies, then is a glimpse of confirmation of the rule of the select committee discernible; but of the showing of the great statesman, not even a shadow.

We will also state the fourth parcel in a tabular form.

	<i>No. of admis- sions.</i>	<i>Per cent. Increase of admissions.</i>	<i>Price of ad- mission.</i>	<i>Per cent. Decrease of price.</i>	<i>Expendi- ture.</i>	<i>Per cent. Increase of expenditure.</i>
Before reduction,	9,508	—	3s.	—	£1,426	—
After reduction,	37,431	293	1s.	200	1,871	31

Here, demand has increased 293 per cent, and price decreased only 200, and expenditure has increased 31 per cent. There is no revenue in the case; and we contend that to whatever extent the 31 per cent increase of expenditure, from reduction of price in this case, and the 10 per cent from reduction of rate of duty in the preceding case, is beyond the increase

* The increase of population during the twelve months may be fairly stated at 1½ per cent; surely quite enough to account for the 2 per cent increased expenditure. And as to revenue, it would take a "demand" for 115,622,160 papers! at an "expenditure" of £2,288,355 to give, at a duty of 1d., the same amount of revenue, viz., £481,759, that the duty of 3½ gave.

of means resulting from the increased will and power of the public, by the natural increase of population and wealth, to that extent exactly is it the result of the "demand" being drawn from some other things that have not been so reduced.

As an abstract principle, a "rule without exception," there can be no such thing as an increase of demand in a greater proportion than decrease of price, "so that, if one thousand are sold at 1s. many more than two thousand would be sold at 6d." Even "these facts," as far only as they themselves go, have not "established" such a rule; for the most important one among them, that of newspapers, is, we think we have shown, clearly an exception. And as to an increase capable of giving an increased revenue, it is utterly out of the question.

The foregoing article was written some time ago, and with a very indistinct view to publication. But the recent discussions of the subject, both here and in England, led the writer to revise it with that view; and in the course of fulfilling that intention, he met with the report of Lord Brougham's speech, on the new financial measures of Sir Robert Peel, which contains the following passages:

"Well, then, it was suggested that by lowering the duties of customs and excise, you would increase the consumption, and thus raise the revenue. All experience was against this resource for any immediate practical effect. Let not noble lords imagine that he was opposed to the lowering of the customs and excise. Quite the contrary. *He entertained no doubt that increased revenue would be the result, the certain consequence, of reduction in the duties of customs and excise,* and would remove many of the hardships which now pressed on the consumers; but his opinion was that such remedies would now come too late to cure the present difficulties. They would tell no doubt in the course of time, but that was not what was now wanted. He repeated, that such a remedy would come too late. There were abundant illustrations of what he thus stated. When the noble lord opposite (the earl of Ripon) was in office, about twenty years ago, he made the attempt to get an increased revenue by lowering the duties, and in that year the duties on wines were reduced 54 per cent. What became of the consumption? It was very much increased, but the revenue fell one third; and now after a lapse of twenty years, it had not come up to its former amount, but was at the present day one fifth less. The same might be said of tobacco. A reduction of the duty took place to the amount of 25 per cent, from 4s. to 3s. per pound. He would not say that the consumption was not increased by this. It was, to a considerable amount, but there was a considerable deficiency in the revenue, and at the present day it amounted to about one seventh of what it had been before the reduction of duties took place. A great reduction had also been made in sugar. The duty was lowered from 27s. to 24s. per cwt., or 11 per cent. The consumption rapidly increased. In fact, the reduction answered admirably for all purposes but those of revenue."

There is in these remarks so much of confirmation of our reasoning, that we almost doubt whether we have construed correctly those which his lordship made in 1825. Still, as the reader will perceive from the passage we have put in italics, there is enough of the doctrine reasserted by him to remove the doubt, and make the reasoning against it, if worth any thing at all, worth as much as it was before.

ART. VI.—OUR TRADE WITH ENGLAND.

To the Editor of the Merchants' Magazine :

It is not often that we see the candid confession by an advocate of a protective tariff, that the corn laws of England are the very principles of political economy upon which we are so anxious that our own government should act; yet if I understand your correspondent, Mr. Colman, right, he not only admits, but proclaims this doctrine. It has been popular in this country, by men of all classes, to decry these laws as extremely injurious and wrong, operating peculiarly hard on the agriculture and commerce of this country, and inflicting evils of a more serious character on the lower classes, not only in England, but in all Europe. We have always had the opinion, and the article of your correspondent does much to establish its truth, that the corn laws of England were beneficial to the agriculture of this country. Our wheat, exported through the British provinces, does not come in competition with the wheat of Europe; but let the ports of England be opened, and our grain would be effectually excluded. In exchange for this, however, our manufacturers would find a market for low-priced cottons and woollens in those grain-growing countries, because they can be manufactured here cheaper than in any other part of the world. England is aware of our advantage in this respect, and has excluded our manufactures from her East Indies.

Let us examine the corn laws, their origin and effects, and we can perhaps judge more accurately of the propriety of adopting this feature of transatlantic policy. The superior strength and influence of the land-holders has led England to adopt her present system. Its object, and to a considerable extent, its effect, is to exclude foreign grain, and increase the price. Land is enhanced in value; the laborer, unable to purchase or even rent, is driven from the soil to the mill. The influx of laborers in every branch of manufactures reduces the price of labor, while bread-stuffs advance; and here commences the practical working of the system. The laborer, whose wages barely furnish the means of subsistence, though not always that, now finds that he has no time to devote to mental or moral culture. From a man, he becomes a mere machine without voluntary effort.

Those countries adapted to the culture of grain, unable to sell their products in England, are unable to buy her manufactures; and the blow aimed at foreign labor recoils on the head of the poor operative, first driven from the land to the mill, degraded from a *man* to a *menial*, and now again the victim of an unjust policy. The peasantry of Poland and Russia are anxious to buy the products of the English spindle and loom, at prices which will compensate labor, if England will but take their grain and feed her own starving and rebellious children.

Although England would find a successful rival in the United States in coarse goods, the market for finer fabrics would be almost exclusively her own. In proportion, however, as her policy becomes more liberal will her ability to manufacture cheap be increased. Such is the policy of the present administration. Sir Robert Peel's new tariff proposes a great reduction in the number of dutiable articles, as well as in the *ad valorem* rate. It requires no superior sagacity to discern that the true interests of England are to be greatly advanced by this measure. Buying cheap, under a low system of duties, all the materials of manufacturing, she will

be able to offer more facilities to other countries to buy her goods, and at the same time the products of the world will find a ready market in her manufacturing towns and cities. England will see her commerce on the increase, and the labor of her artisans and operatives will be more equitably rewarded.

But what is to be the effect on the United States? Continental wheat will take the place of American, and our agriculture will, to a small extent, be depressed. Our manufactures too, will suffer, as the ability of England to compete successfully with us will be increased.

Let me call attention to an extraordinary statement for an advocate of a protective tariff to put forth. In the first sentence of your correspondent's article, he says: "I have always been a warm advocate for what is called Home Industry, holding that, in the main, political economy does not essentially differ from domestic economy; and believing that a family, to be really prosperous and independent, must *from within itself and from its own resources supply its own wants.*" No man will question this proposition as a *theory*, yet the protectionists, if we understand their policy, *act* in direct opposition to it. If a farmer raise wheat and buy his cloth with it, he as certainly supplies this want *from his own resources* as if he manufactured the cloth in his own dwelling. This is just what the advocates of free trade propose: to produce every thing for which our soil, climate, and condition of the people are suited, and exchange our surplus for those articles which we cannot produce at all, or only at an exorbitant rate; thus from within ourselves and from our own resources supplying our wants. On the other hand, it is proposed that we produce directly, not by an exchange of products, every article necessary or convenient. We have no idea that any person in his senses proposes to carry this policy to its extreme, though the time is not long past when there were such; yet we will trace it there, that its true character may be exposed. Unnecessary expense would be incurred, and abortive attempts made to grow the plant of China by the waters of the St. Croix and Kennebec; human art and ingenuity would in vain seek to raise coffee on the banks of the Mohawk and Hudson; woollen and cotton mills, driven by steam, would spring up on the prairies of the west, while the flocks of the mountains would find unnatural pasturage on the savannahs of the south; the hard and unfruitful maple would take the place of the copious cane; the mulberry, orange, and lemon would be found in the green-houses of St. Petersburg; while the navy of England would be supplied with timber from artificial forests. This policy when applied to families is even more pernicious. No scheme can be more Quixotic than one which would lead every family to confine itself to those articles which were produced by its own members. Industry asks nothing, and surely can receive nothing beneficial, at the hand of legislation. Labor desires to be let alone. Labor is the propelling power in society, not the propelled; hence the fruitlessness of every attempt to render it the servant of law.

Your correspondent shows that in 1840, our exports to England exceeded the imports from that country by \$25,034,422, and supports the doctrine that a high tariff will diminish our imports and increase our exports. Now the tariff of England in 1840 was higher than our own, yet the balance of trade was against her. If Mr. Colman were correct, England ought to have exported great and imported small quantities of the products of labor.

MERCANTILE LAW DEPARTMENT.**DIGEST OF RECENT ENGLISH CASES.****BILL OF EXCHANGE.—NOTICE OF DISHONOR.**

At Law.—The following were the notices of non-payment of six bills of exchange. 1st. "Sir—A bill for £29 17s. 3d., drawn by Ward on Hunt, due yesterday, is unpaid, and I am sorry to say, the person at whose house it is made payable, don't speak very favorably of the acceptor's punctuality. I should like to see you upon it to-day." 2d. "Mr. Maine: Sir—This is to give you notice, that a bill drawn by you, and accepted by Josias Bateman, for £47 16s. 9d., due July 19, 1835, is unpaid, and lies due at Mr. John Furze's, 65 Fleet-street." 3d. "Sir—William Howard's acceptance for £21 4s. 4d., due on Saturday, is unpaid. He has promised to pay it in a week or ten days. I shall be glad to see you upon it as early as possible." 4th. "Sir—This is to give you notice, that a bill for £176 15s. 6d., drawn by Samuel Maine, and accepted by George Clisby, dated May 7th, 1835, at four months, lies due and unpaid at my house." 5th. "P. Johnson, Esq.: Sir—This is to give you notice that a bill for £20 17s. 7d., drawn by Samuel Maine, accepted by Richard Jones, dated May 21, 1835, at four months, lies due and unpaid at my house." 6th. "P. Johnson, Esq.: Sir—This is to give you notice, that a bill for £148 10s., drawn by Samuel Maine, and accepted by George Parker, dated May 22, 1835, lies due and unpaid at my house."

Held, not sufficient notices of dishonor.

MEMORANDUM IN WRITING.—PRINCIPAL AND AGENT.

At Law.—The traveller of the plaintiffs sold the defendants 150 mats of sugar, on account of the plaintiffs. At the time of the sale, one of the defendants wrote the following entry in their book, which the plaintiffs' traveller, on being requested so to do, then signed—viz, "Of North, Simpson, Graham, & Co., 150 mats Ma. sugar, a 71-6 as sample, per sea, Fenning's wharf. First and second ship. (Signed,) Joseph Dyson." The sugar was sent to the wharf, and invoices transmitted to the defendants. Whilst at the wharf, the sugar was destroyed by fire. Dyson had, upon many previous occasions, sold sugars for the plaintiffs to the defendants on credit, upon which occasions similar sale notes had been signed by him, and these contracts the defendants had always performed, but—

Held, that the entry above mentioned, was not a sufficient memorandum in writing within the Statute of Frauds, requiring contracts to be in writing, to bind the defendants, Dyson not being *their* agent for that purpose.

ARBITRATION.—SETTING ASIDE AWARD.—UMPIRE.—REFUSAL TO HEAR WITNESSES.—WAIVER.

At Law.—If an umpire either refuse to rehear the evidence already given before the arbitrators, or to hear further evidence, the award may be set aside.

And it is no waiver of the objection that the party did not insist on it at the time he attended to hear what award the arbitrators had made.

GOODS SOLD AND DELIVERED.

At Law.—The defendant directed the plaintiff to make a coat for him. He afterwards wrote to say, he should have no occasion for it, and directed the plaintiff to dispose of it for him. Plaintiff accordingly sold the coat, and apprised the defendant of his so doing.

Held, upon these facts, that an action was maintainable for goods *sold and delivered* to the defendant.

CONTRACT.—ACCEPTANCE AND DELIVERY.

At Law.—The defendant having purchased goods under a verbal agreement, to be

paid for on delivery, went to the plaintiff's warehouse, where the goods were, and directed the mark on one of the packages to be altered from "No. 1," to "No. 12," and the goods to be sent to St. Catherine's Docks. The mark was altered accordingly. The defendant having, on the following day, refused to pay for the goods, the present action was immediately commenced, subsequently to which the defendant wrote in the plaintiff's books, under entry of the goods ordered, the words, "Receive the above, J. B."

Held, that there was no evidence of a delivery and acceptance of the goods within the Statute of Frauds, and that the receipt, having been given after action brought, did not constitute an acceptance.

STATUTE OF LIMITATIONS.—CONSTRUCTION OF AGREEMENT.—DEMAND.

At Law.—The defendant, being indebted to the plaintiff's intestate, upon two bills of exchange, which were overdue, gave the following written promise in 1803 : "I hereby debar myself of all future plea of the Statute of Limitations, in case of my being sued for the recovery of the amounts of the said bills, and of the interest accruing thereon, at the time of my being so sued; and I hereby promise to pay them, separately or conjointly, with the full amount of legal interest on each and both of them, whenever my circumstances may enable me so to do and I may be called upon for that purpose." An action was brought upon this agreement in 1838, and the issue was, whether a right of action accrued under the agreement within six years? It appeared that the defendant became of ability to pay in 1825, but there was no evidence to show that the plaintiff's intestate was aware of the ability until 1838, in the month of November of which year he demanded payment.

Held, first, that no demand was necessary beyond the bringing of an action; and, secondly, that the action having been brought after the expiration of six years from the period of the defendant having become of ability to pay, of which the plaintiff was bound to have informed himself, he was not entitled to recover.

CONTRACT.—CONSIDERATION.—PROMISE TO PAY EXTRA WAGES TO A SERVANT OF THE GOVERNMENT.

At Law.—The plaintiff, who was a cook on board a merchant ship, was engaged by the defendant to serve in that capacity on board a man-of-war, of which the defendant was captain, and extra wages, in addition to the ordinary pay, were promised him. The plaintiff went on board the defendant's ship, and was rated in the usual way, and acted as cook, receiving pay as a seaman.

Held, that there was a good consideration for the promise of the defendant to pay the extra wages, and that an action might be maintained by him, against the defendant, in respect of them.

HORSE RACE.—STEEPLE CHASE.—WAGER.

At Law.—"B. bets A. £100 to £25 p. p. Mr. R.'s brown mare beats A.'s mare *Mildred*, four miles across a country, thirteen stone each."

Held, a legal wager; and that A.'s mare having beat Mr. R.'s, A. was entitled to recover the £100 in an action of *assumpsit*.

CARRIER.—STOPPAGE IN TRANSITU.—BANKRUPTCY.—TAKING POSSESSION.—EVIDENCE.—AUTHORITY.—CONFIRMATION.

At Law.—B., a merchant at Liverpool, ordered a cargo of timber to be sent from Quebec, in a vessel belonging to and chartered by a shipowner at Montrose. The timber was to be delivered at a port in Lancashire. The price was not paid; and before the arrival of the vessel in England, B. became a bankrupt. On the 18th of July, before the arrival of the vessel, the defendants, who were the correspondents in this country of the consignor, sent to the shipowner a notice of stoppage *in transitu*, whereupon the ship-

owner sent a letter to await the arrival of the captain, directing him to deliver the cargo to the defendants. The vessel arrived in port on the 8th of August, on which day, before the captain had received his owner's letter, the agent of the assignees went on board, and told the captain he had come to take possession of the cargo. He went into the cabin, into which the ends of the timber projected, and saw and touched the timber. When the agent first stated that he came to take possession, the captain made no reply, but subsequently, at the interview, told him that he would deliver him the cargo when he was satisfied about his freight, but did not then consent to deliver immediate possession, or to waive his lien for the freight. They then went on shore together. Shortly afterwards the defendants' clerk came on board, and served a notice of stoppage *in transitu* upon the mate, who had charge of the cargo; and a few days afterwards received possession of the cargo from the captain.

Before the consignor knew of the bankruptcy of the consignee, he had sent three letters to the manager of a bank in Liverpool, enclosing bills drawn by himself upon certain parties, and he referred to the defendants as persons who would settle any irregularity that might occur respecting the acceptances. These letters were communicated to the defendants and assented to by them. Another letter to the same party enclosed a bill drawn upon the consignee for the price of the timber in question.

Held, first, that the letters were admissible in evidence, and gave the defendants an authority to stop the cargo *in transitu*.

A notice of stoppage *in transitu*, to be good, must be given either to the servant, who has the custody of the goods, or to the principal; and in the latter case it must be given at such a time, and under such circumstances, as that the principal, by the exercise of reasonable diligence, may communicate it to his servant in time to prevent the delivery of the goods to the consignee.

Held, therefore, secondly, that in the present case the notice to the shipowner did not amount to a stoppage *in transitu*.

Held, also, that there was no actual possession of the goods by the assignees; and as there was no contract by the captain to hold the goods as their agent, the circumstances did not amount to a *constructive* possession of the goods by them.

Whether the act of marking or taking samples, or the like, without any removal from the possession of the carrier, although done with the intention of taking possession, will amount to a *constructive* possession, unless accompanied by circumstances denoting that the carrier was intended to keep, and assented to keep the goods as an agent—*Quare*?

The consignor, *before* the stoppage *in transitu*, wrote a letter to the defendants, in which he assumes that they *had* stopped the cargo. This letter did not reach the defendants until *after* the stoppage.

Quare—whether it gave authority to them to stop the cargo at the *time* of the stoppage, or amounted to a valid *confirmation* of that act?

BILL OF EXCHANGE.—IRREVOCABLE APPROPRIATION.—EQUITABLE ASSIGNMENT.—BANKRUPTCY.

At Law.—The plaintiff having sold goods to B., sent them to the defendant, as B.'s agent, who consigned them to his partners abroad for sale. The plaintiff being the holder of B.'s acceptances not then due, it was agreed, between him and B., and the defendant, that B. should write and deliver to the defendant the following letter;—"Mr. R. G. W., (the plaintiff,) holding my acceptances for £1,100, or thereabouts, for goods consigned by him on my account, to your firms at Rio and Bahia, I hereby authorize and direct you, from and out of any remittances that you may receive against nett proceeds of any consignments made by me to either of your above firms, subsequent to the 1st of May last, to pay such acceptances when and as they become due or afterwards, if previously to the receipt of such nett proceeds of such consignments, &c., the bills are not

honored by me. Signed, A. Bull." This letter was delivered to the defendant, and the terms of it were assented to by him. B. afterwards became a bankrupt, and the defendant having received the proceeds of the goods, refused to pay them to the plaintiff, but handed them over to the assignees of B.

Held, that this was an appropriation irrevocable except by consent of all parties, the existence of the debt, although not due, being a good consideration to B.; and that the defendant having bound himself to appropriate the goods according to the direction of the owner, could not withhold them from the plaintiff.

MONTHLY COMMERCIAL CHRONICLE.

[BROUGHT DOWN TO JUNE 15.]

By a singular inadvertence in our May number, in giving a list of banks which had stopped payment from January, 1842, up to that time, we inserted the Planters' Bank, Georgia, instead of the Planters' & Mechanics' Bank. The former institution is situated at Savannah, and is a sound and solvent bank; while the latter, located at Columbus, has been forced to yield to the pressure as we stated.

The leading features of financial and commercial affairs as indicated in our former numbers had not varied in their general character down to the middle of June, but some progress had been made towards bringing about a more sound state of the currency, and reducing exchanges to a greater degree of uniformity than has been experienced in many years. We stated in our last number that preparations were on foot for resumption at New Orleans. Soon after that number went to press, seven of the banks of New Orleans returned to specie payments, although the law did not require it of them until December next. There are ten banks in New Orleans; and three of them, the Citizens', Consolidated, and State banks, being opposed to resumption, resisted the movement for some days after it was entered into by the other institutions. The force of public opinion was, however, such as to oblige them to follow in the movement, or submit to discredit. The following was the aggregate condition of these banks immediately prior to their resumption:—

CASH ASSETS AND LIABILITIES OF THE NEW ORLEANS BANKS, APRIL 30.

	<i>Liabilities.</i>	<i>Cash Assets.</i>	<i>Def. Assets.</i>	<i>Ex. Assets.</i>
City Bank,.....	\$1,460,960	\$814,972	\$645,988	—
Louisiana Bank,.....	296,372	605,634	—	\$309,261
Canal and Banking Co... .	451,376	162,785	288,590	—
Carrolton Bank,.....	150,745	60,263	90,482	—
Commercial Bank,.....	1,029,311	555,562	472,748	—
M. & Traders' Bank,....	358,074	364,870	—	6,796
Union Bank,	1,509,284	1,214,028	295,256	—
	5,256,126	3,778,119	1,794,366	
<i>Non-Resuming Banks.</i>				
Citizens',.....	2,277,715	1,715,315	561,399	—
Consolidated,.....	1,283,451	785,328	498,022	—
State Bank,	1,220,963	932,328	288,634	—
	4,782,129	3,432,971	1,351,057	
TOTAL,	\$10,038,255	\$7,211,090	3,145,423	

The resumption effected under these circumstances was of but short duration. It continued sixteen days under a constant effort of the institutions to realize their assets, and to meet the unremitting demand for specie in payment of their outstanding obligations. At the close of the month of May the banks again made their report, which was followed by an immediate panic on the part of the public. This caused a run which in

three days resulted in a resuspension of six of the banks. The leading features of all the banks at the two periods were as follows:—

CONDITION OF THE BANKS OF NEW ORLEANS, APRIL 30, AND MAY 28, 1842.

<i>Assets.</i>	<i>April 30.</i>	<i>May 28.</i>	<i>Increase.</i>	<i>Decrease.</i>
Capital of Branches,.....	\$5,775,000	\$5,775,000
Real Estate,.....	2,508,224	2,557,037	\$44,813
Public Improvements,.....	3,081,198	3,088,495	7,297
Loans on Stock,.....	11,015,726	11,008,647	\$7,079
Loans on Mortgages, &c.	5,694,966	7,944,907	2,249,941
Discounts,.....	10,948,500	8,314,885	2,633,615
Other Assets,.....	3,175,253	3,178,905	3,652
Protested Paper,.....	5,036,683	5,387,451	350,768
<i>Cash Assets.</i>				
Specie,.....	2,263,950	1,741,526	522,424
Loans on Deposits,.....	2,115,407	1,894,944	220,463
Exchange,.....	2,028,722	1,976,519	52,203
Other Assets,.....	617,904	334,212	283,692
TOTAL, Assets,.....	\$54,261,539	\$53,198,528		
<i>Liabilities.</i>				
Capital,.....	\$35,447,578	\$35,447,578
Circulation,.....	3,707,719	3,007,340	700,379
Deposits,.....	4,738,153	4,177,867	560,286
Exchange,.....	816,737	836,127	19,390
Other Cash Liabilities,....	690,539	398,016	292,523
" "	1,431,627	1,793,611	361,984
TOTAL, Liabilities,....	\$46,832,333	\$45,660,539		

This return gives us the fact that the banks were called upon in the short space of thirty days to pay \$1,553,188, to do which they diminished their available assets 1,078,782. This left them in a very weak condition to sustain the run which followed. In the same time, it appears that \$350,000 of their discounts came under protest, which was nearly all that fell due. In the thirty days which elapsed prior to the 30th of April, the cash liabilities were diminished \$226,207 only, and during the same period, the specie increased \$33,000. The sudden panic which set in and existed throughout April may therefore fairly be ascribed to the bickerings between the banks themselves. The want of confidence which they exhibited in each other shook the confidence of the public, and produced the disastrous results that we have seen.

We have gone thus minutely into the occurrences in New Orleans because we look upon the events which transpired there as of vast importance to the commercial world, New Orleans being the great head-quarters of the cotton market, a staple that forms two thirds of the whole exports of the United States. The effect of the failure in New Orleans must be to retard a restoration of a sound currency throughout the western states. The resumption at New Orleans was to have been followed by a similar movement along the whole valley of the Mississippi. Ohio, Indiana, Illinois, and Kentucky resumed on the 15th of June, as required by the laws of the respective states. The banks of Tennessee were required to resume within twenty days after those of Kentucky and Louisiana, and have done so. The law of the latter requires the banks to resume on the first Monday of December, 1842, under penalty of forfeiture; and the probability now is that they will hesitate in doing so. The following is a table of the leading features of those institutions that have resumed, at the period of their latest returns:—

WESTERN AND SOUTHWESTERN BANKS WHICH PAID SPECIE ON THE 15TH OF JUNE.

<i>Banks.</i>	<i>Date.</i>	<i>Loans.</i>	<i>Specie.</i>	<i>Circulation.</i>	<i>Deposits.</i>
State Bank of Indiana,.....	Oct., 1841,	\$3,708,158	\$1,127,518	\$2,960,414	\$251,986
Nor. Bank of Kentucky,.....	Jan., 1842,	3,788,998	609,309	1,523,271	612,435
Bank of Louisville,.....	Jan., 1842,	1,309,702	160,414	337,448	85,613

<i>Banks.</i>	<i>Date.</i>	<i>Loans.</i>	<i>Specie.</i>	<i>Circulation.</i>	<i>Deposits.</i>
Bank of Kentucky,.....	Jan., 1842,	4,232,147	669,247	1,614,827	363,273
Bank of Missouri,.....	Jan., 1842,	1,500,000	228,814	305,850	413,347
Banks of Ohio,.....	Mar., 1842,	4,607,213	539,993	889,257	1,341,368
Bank of Illinois,.....	Feb., 1842,	1,799,425	421,151	1,310,492	100,513
Bank of Cape Fear, N. C.,.....	Jan., 1842,	1,769,831	565,518	962,197	217,209
Bank of Louisiana,.....		3,037,502	276,605	133,870	329,700
City Bank,.....		1,841,537	236,907	495,795	732,530
Mechanics' & Traders' Bank,.....		1,164,883	130,698	198,885	200,773
Union Bank,.....		5,826,204	400,306	536,130	719,528
TOTAL,.....		\$34,585,600	\$5,146,480	11,268,436	\$5,368,275

The following were the leading features of the New Orleans banks and other southern banks that remain suspended :—

SUSPENDED SOUTHERN BANKS.

<i>Banks.</i>	<i>Loans.</i>	<i>Specie.</i>	<i>Circulation.</i>	<i>Deposits.</i>
Canal & Banking Company,..	\$1,533,122	\$78,184	\$239,555	\$31,716
Carrolton R. R. & Bank'g Co.	469,456	29,638	35,270	48,622
Citizens' Bank,.....	7,903,836	112,544	294,245	878,231
Commercial Bank,.....	1,145,124	79,087	210,545	87,011
Consolidated Association,.....	1,372,112	170,025	419,390	498,241
Louisiana State Bank,.....	1,974,651	227,527	387,645	651,511
Com. Bank, Natchez, Miss....	3,904,074	54,954	13,611
Planters' Bank, Natchez, Miss.	2,615,524	9,021	501,823	85,136
Banks of Virginia,.....	15,925,088	2,462,155	7,753,300	2,638,882
Bank of Mobile,.....	1,705,716	89,505	25,137	1,057,439
Planters' and Mer. of Mobile,	1,648,803	101,126	48,735	690,412
State Bk. of Ala. and br'ches,	12,000,000	1,654,476	7,026,057	874,484
TOTAL,.....	\$52,197,506	\$5,066,247	\$16,997,712	\$7,575,300

The effect which resumption had upon the exchanges down to the moment of the New Orleans explosion is clearly distinguishable in the following table of rates :—

RATES OF DOMESTIC BILLS AT NEW YORK SINCE THE RESUMPTION IN PHILADELPHIA

IN MARCH, 1842.

<i>Places.</i>	<i>February.</i>	<i>May 1.</i>	<i>May 15.</i>	<i>May 30.</i>	<i>June 15.</i>
Boston,.....	4 a 3	4 a 3	4 a 3	par a 4	par a 4
Philadelphia,.....	7 a 8 $\frac{1}{2}$	par a 8	d.	par a 8	par a 8
Baltimore,.....	2 a 3	6 a 4	6 a 4	6 a 4	par a 4
Richmond,.....	9 a 12 $\frac{1}{2}$	7 $\frac{1}{2}$ a 7 $\frac{1}{2}$	7 $\frac{1}{2}$ a 7 $\frac{1}{2}$	2 $\frac{1}{2}$ a 3	2 $\frac{1}{2}$ a 2 $\frac{1}{2}$
North Carolina,..	5 $\frac{1}{2}$ a 5 $\frac{1}{2}$	5 $\frac{1}{2}$ a 5 $\frac{1}{2}$	3 a 3 $\frac{1}{2}$	3 $\frac{1}{2}$ a 3 $\frac{1}{2}$	3 a 3 $\frac{1}{2}$
Savannah,.....	2 $\frac{1}{2}$ a 3	2 $\frac{1}{2}$ a 2 $\frac{1}{2}$	a 2	1 $\frac{1}{2}$ a 2	1 $\frac{1}{2}$ a 2
Charleston,.....	1 $\frac{1}{2}$ a 1 $\frac{1}{2}$				
Mobile,.....	12 $\frac{1}{2}$ a 13	19 a 20	15 a 16	29 a 30	26 a 26 $\frac{1}{2}$
New Orleans,.....	6 $\frac{1}{2}$ a 7	6 $\frac{1}{2}$ a 7	a 6 $\frac{1}{2}$	1 a 2	1 $\frac{1}{2}$ a 1 $\frac{1}{2}$
Louisville,.....	9 $\frac{1}{2}$ a 10	5 a 6	4 a 5	3 $\frac{1}{2}$ a 4	3 a 3 $\frac{1}{2}$
Nashville,.....	14 a 14 $\frac{1}{2}$	17 a 18	17 a 18	12 $\frac{1}{2}$ a 15	10 a 11
St. Louis,.....	13 a 14	6 a	6 a	4 a 5	7 a 8
Cincinnati,.....	15 a 16	8 a 10	8 a 9	4 a 5	3 $\frac{1}{2}$ a 4
Indiana,.....	16 a 17	a 10	a 16	8 a 9	8 a 9
Illinois,.....	17 a 18	a 31	7 a 9	7 a 8

On every point where resumption had been enforced the exchanges were reduced to very near their natural level, which is the cost of transportation of the precious metals, and which is always against the point to which payment is to be made. This reduction in the price of exchanges has, however, been attended with a pressure that has borne with great severity upon the Atlantic dealers, and has tended to diminish the spring business. The banks preparing to resume have been unable to discount the usual amount of business paper; and although exchange has been freely offered on New York,

at all the points, the means of purchase have been diminished by the severe curtailment of the accustomed facilities. The consequence has been that the city merchants have been deprived of their remittances, and the failures anticipated in our May number have to a great extent been realized, and within a short time some unexpected stoppages among the grocers have transpired. The extent to which this reduction of the western currency has taken place may be indicated in the following comparative statement of the banks of Cincinnati, June 1, 1841, and June, 1842:—

BANKS OF CINCINNATI, JUNE, 1841, AND JUNE, 1842.

	June, 1841.		June, 1842.		
	<i>Capital.</i>	<i>Loans.</i>	<i>Circulation.</i>	<i>Loans.</i>	<i>Circulation.</i>
Lafayette Bank, ...	\$1,000,000	\$1,650,000	\$523,000	\$980,000	\$57,000
Franklin,	1,000,000	1,585,000	229,400	1,095,000	25,400
Ohio Life & Trust,	634,730	779,700	31,000	632,500	89,000
Commercial Bank,	500,000	1,902,077	650,024	1,017,836	122,820
TOTAL,	\$3,134,730	\$5,916,777	\$1,433,424	\$3,725,336	\$294,220
		Reduction,.....		2,191,441	1,139,204

Notwithstanding this state of things in the interior, causing much embarrassment among the dealers who depended upon receiving their accustomed remittance, money with the banks and capitalists has been abundant in the city, arising from the fact that the call for money for mercantile purposes has by no means kept pace with the receipts of the banks. This has produced an increased inquiry for stocks for investment, and has continued that upward tendency in values which we noticed in our last. We then stated that the new United States loan had not been taken. Since then, however, an arrangement has been entered into by the Secretary of the Treasury with certain broker houses, by which money was obtained upon a portion of the \$3,500,000 of stock offered. The price did not transpire, but some sales of the stock were subsequently made in the market at par. The New York seven per cent stock commands a premium of $2\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. There is yet, however, no appearance of any movement on the part of the delinquent states to restore their credit; on the contrary, the difficulties seem to increase around them. The state of Virginia did not succeed in negotiating a loan of \$250,000 that was appropriated to the payment of the July interest on the state debt, and fears are entertained on that account. The interest was, however, fully provided for. An extra session of the Pennsylvania legislature has been convened to take into consideration the means of meeting the payment of the interest due on the debt of that state in August. As yet no means whatever have been provided, and the governor, in his message, has called the attention of the legislature to the subject in an energetic manner. He represents that the people of Pennsylvania, who number 1,700,000, now pay town and county taxes amounting in the aggregate to \$4,000,000, of which but \$700,000 comes into the state treasury. The interest on the state debt is about \$2,000,000, and a deficiency in the current expenses of the government also exists. To meet these, the present imposts must be nearly doubled, and the taxes must be promptly levied. This state of affairs places the credit of Pennsylvania in a very critical condition. The state of the banks in New Orleans will also have a great influence upon the credit of that state. The public debt of Louisiana consists almost altogether of bonds issued on the faith of the state to different banks, which bonds have been sold in Europe, and the proceeds constitute the capitals of the banks, and is by them loaned out to the stockholders on mortgages of their landed property. The interest received for the loan of the stock is supposed sufficient to pay the interest on the bonds sold abroad, and to form a sinking fund for their ultimate redemption. The issues have been as follows:—

LOUISIANA STATE DEBT.

<i>Bonds Issued.</i>	<i>Rate of Interest.</i>	<i>Redeemable.</i>	<i>Amount.</i>
Bank of Louisiana,.....	5 per cent.	1844-49	\$1,200,000
Consolidated Association,....	5 "	1843-48	2,382,000
Mechanics' & Traders',.....	5 "	1853	150,000
Union Bank,.....	5 "	1844-47-50-52	7,000,000
Citizens' Bank,.....	5 "	1850-9-68-77-86	7,088,889
Issues not negotiated,.....		3,000,000
TOTAL,.....			\$20,820,889

These bonds are guaranteed by cotton lands supposed to be worth \$25,400,000. It has long been the opinion of many of the shrewdest practical financiers of that section of the country that the expenses attending the borrowing of money, wherewith to pursue the banking business, were greater than the profits of planting would warrant. The facts now developing seem to warrant that conclusion. The amount of interest due in Europe for money borrowed for various purposes in this country has been computed at \$11,000,000 annually. This is full ten per cent of the whole exports of domestic produce, and must absorb all the profits of those exports. Many of the states have declared their inability to continue those payments, but it is to be hoped that, with the removal of those general causes of depression which have of late years overshadowed the whole commercial world, such an alleviation of business may take place in this country as will enable its citizens to redeem their honor.

The great question of national interest now pending before congress is the adjustment of the tariff on such a footing as shall yield a revenue sufficient for all the purposes of government, and at the same time impose the least burdens upon commerce. For the last few years it has been apparent that the customs did not yield a revenue sufficient even for an economical administration of the government. This deficiency has been supposed to be temporary in its nature, and has been supplied by expedients. At the close of the present month, however, the final reduction in duties as provided by the compromise tariff goes into effect, when a general duty of twenty per cent is to be levied upon all articles. The reduction under the compromise act has been biennial, commencing in 1834. The following table will illustrate its operation :—

BIENNIAL REDUCTION OF DUTIES UNDER THE COMPROMISE ACT.

<i>Years ending Dec. 31.</i>	<i>Reduction.</i>	<i>25 per c.</i>	<i>30 per c.</i>	<i>35 per c.</i>	<i>40 per c.</i>	<i>50 per c.</i>
1834-35	.1	24½	29	33½	38	47
1836-37	.2	24	28	32	36	44
1838-39	.3	23½	27	30½	34	41
1840-41	.4	23	26	29	32	38
1842—June 30,	.7	21	23	24	26	29
After 30th June,	under	20	20	20	20	20

The manner of reduction is by tenths of the difference between twenty per cent and the original duty. Thus, if the duty was fifty per cent, the difference between that and twenty per cent would be 30, one tenth of which is .3, which, deducted from 50, gives forty-seven per cent as the duty for 1834-5; and so on, until, after June, the reduction becomes complete. Three propositions have been made to increase the revenues :—one by the secretary of the treasury ; one by the committee of ways and means ; and one by the committee on manufactures. All of these plans propose duties to average nearly thirty-five per cent instead of twenty. This is to restore the rates of 1834, before any reduction took place. While this is going on on this side of the water, in England arrangements have been made to reduce the duties levied there on imported goods, particularly on American produce. These contemporaneous movements will, doubtless, have a great effect upon the trade between the two countries. In order to form some estimate of the change, we have compiled the following table, showing the trade between

the United States and Great Britain for several years, with the rates of duty heretofore existing, and those proposed to be levied in both countries :—

COMMERCE BETWEEN GREAT BRITAIN AND THE UNITED STATES.
IMPORTS FROM ENGLAND.

<i>Free of Duty.</i>	1834.	1836.	1837.	1839.	1840.	<i>Duties imposed</i>		
						<i>Tariff</i>	<i>of</i>	<i>in</i>
Books,.....	30,160	26,130	—	32,948	34,490	free	free	free
Selter,.....	122	41,606	17,683	7,267	4,891	"	"	"
Furs, &c.,..	208,834	465,842	230,503	518,989	165,740	"	"	5 p.c.
Tin, pigs,...	52,836	37,413	148,966	235,758	79,308	"	"	1 "
" plates,..	—	1,403,101	776,711	1,044,368	878,968	"	"	2½ "
Copper, pigs	4,130	344,317	188,578	109,456	99,672	"	"	free
" plates,..	433,181	1,004,177	610,310	615,351	410,649	"	"	"
Gold,.....	1,997,260	2,317,605	75,912	465,047	676,200	"	"	"
Silver,.....	3,708,000	8,675	44,389	967,130	127,106	"	"	"
Spices,.....	90,000	71,448	43,130	114,220	42,000	"	"	30 p.c.
Silks,.....	—	3,795,001	1,474,907	3,314,299	1,343,818	"	"	30 "
" & w'sted	—	784,313	220,897	441,040	341,452	"	"	30 "
Camlet,.....	—	120,869	15,753	29,150	5,968	"	"	20 "
Worsted,....	—	5,663,555	2,687,002	4,326,208	1,336,628	"	"	30 "
Linens,.....	—	6,556,498	3,816,570	3,589,555	3,493,001	"	"	25 "
Burlaps,.....	—	364,920	283,791	397,156	245,029	"	"	25 "
Sheetings,...	—	252,021	194,553	312,485	153,832	"	"	25 "
Wool,.....	—	58,221	24,067	16,417	12,276	"	"	20 "
Quicksilver,	—	12,281	18,460	244,672	54,315	"	"	15 "
O'r Articles, 9,875,565	1,837,240	1,254,426	2,445,370	1,103,516	—	—	—	—
TOTAL,								
Free,...	16,600,150	25,365,715	12,240,201	21,227,215	10,448,133			
<i>Ad Valorem.</i>								
Cloths,.....	4,198,133	8,569,225	2,829,987	6,707,994	4,490,830	50	38	40 p.c.
Merino,.....	—	18,519	2,223	224,051	112,780	50	38	40 "
Blankets,...	913,701	2,177,700	834,177	1,246,578	399,438	25	23	25 "
Hosiery,....	312,775	674,031	120,422	818,917	415,745	25	23	25 "
Oth. Wool,..	193,862	667,119	86,443	508,756	214,581	50	38	40 "
Worsted,...	665,804	198,727	157,480	318,164	—	20	20	30 "
Dy. Cotton, 5,531,964	9,882,020	5,546,722	7,481,298	3,107,835	25	23	25	"
White,.....	1,560,299	2,252,947	1,103,483	1,875,996	767,875	25	23	25 "
Hosiery,....	394,777	634,942	527,689	301,293	261,334	25	23	25 "
Yarn,.....	366,533	526,162	376,968	766,587	373,774	25	23	18½ "
Oth. Cotton,	339,151	796,406	573,313	626,915	250,179	25	23	25 "
Sew'g Silk,	17,462	131,763	800,090	196,470	30,705	40	32	44 "
Lace,.....	846,232	1,240,641	602,655	949,669	291,128	12½	12½	25 "
Art. of Flax,	201,401	903,905	587,600	838,454	308,542	25	23	25 "
" Hemp,	88,892	66,132	57,023	152,056	123,063	25	23	25 "
Straw Hats,	139,639	285,796	215,510	471,776	157,658	30	26	30 "
Art. of Iron, 3,877,000	6,567,530	5,100,809	5,122,170	2,445,318	25	23	30	"
" Copper,	20,950	109,313	90,536	62,830	31,758	25	23	30 "
" Brass,..	235,613	426,672	339,972	233,280	135,632	25	23	30 "
" Tin,....	90,344	46,870	36,177	47,840	25,742	25	23	30 "
" Pewter,	13,370	63,524	42,337	59,558	23,164	25	23	30 "
" Lead,...	1,141	4,310	6,694	1,057	901	15	15	30 "
" Wood,..	19,130	60,376	62,313	57,921	75,711	25	23	30 "
" Lather,	130,676	274,530	165,366	327,810	109,561	30	26	30 "
" Gold, &c.	89,000	362,889	281,435	179,977	118,296	12½	12½	07½ "
Watches,...	414,085	735,178	609,117	373,083	180,258	12½	12½	12½ "
Glassware,..	943,535	82,340	55,130	74,290	41,574	20	20	25 "
China,.....	76,964	81,216	103,076	132,368	77,005	20	20	25 "
E'rth'nw're, 1,365,380	2,410,190	1,534,049	2,188,027	1,811,811	25	—	—	"
Wares, &c. 200,000	706,310	485,687	316,411	141,008	25	23	10	"
Saddlery,...	336,967	598,000	411,625	389,931	200,143	10	10	25 "

						Du. tariff	ties of	Pro- posed
<i>Ad Valorem,</i>						'34.	'34.	'40. Tariff.
<i>continued.</i>	1834.	1836.	1837.	1839.	1840.	'34.	'40.	
Slates,.....	30,188	140,120	54,624	73,692	66,687	15	23	25 "
O'r Articles, 1,200,000	2,190,240	1,134,131	2,186,000	836,000	—	—	—	—
TOTAL, Ad								
Valorem, 24,377,110	43,569,774	23,894,498	35,771,700	17,576,245				
<i>Specific.</i>								
Flannels,...	189,848	292,460	66,946	159,470	59,067	16	12	14 p.c.
Baizes,.....	40,056	168,163	27,127	181,957	50,708	16	14	14 "
Brus. c'rp'ts,	195,644	512,248	367,827	211,250	245,715	63	40	60 "
Ingrain do..	198,695	447,550	251,881	195,371	91,577	35	28	35 "
Floorecloths,	15,426	25,171	27,250	30,130	19,558	43	35	35 "
Oilcloths,...	1,843	7,239	4,358	7,188	1,833	12½	12½	10 "
Cott. Bag'g,	230,425	1,638,319	405,662	195,855	282,419	03½	03½	05 "
Wine,.....	194,000	263,340	167,120	71,130	49,900	12½	12½	60 "
Spirits,.....	89,000	161,120	109,103	159,640	71,281	60	37	65 "
Ale, &c....	100,000	176,453	142,300	238,203	134,000	20	20	20 "
Linseed Oil,	212,000	242,185	225,851	600,458	169,766	25	18	25 "
Other Oil,...	3,380	9,173	1,551	69,264	5,223	25	18	40 "
Cheese,.....	3,247	4,838	4,991	6,470	5,788	09	07	06 "
Gum'wder,	5,849	29,644	11,815	5,517	3,859	08	07½	08 "
Bristles,	382	78,784	15,822	68,587	22,628	03	03	04 "
Ochre,.....	14,130	15,936	16,592	15,185	28,651	01	01	— "
Whit. Lead,	57,085	55,736	46,275	48,222	40,624	05	03½	04 "
Twine,.....	101,370	136,376	106,000	125,964	108,482	05	05	06 "
Nails,.....	51,406	103,679	65,267	140,329	62,237	05	04	05 "
Ch'n Cables,	114,878	132,336	109,913	138,433	85,613	03	03	03 "
Ane. & Anv.	75,204	110,278	91,163	86,751	30,600	02	01½	02½ "
Castings,....	142,378	66,300	78,980	65,500	93,467	01½	01	01½ "
Round Iron,	10,004	22,872	21,279	29,822	46,007	03	02½	03 "
Sheet "	96,464	207,738	282,152	272,888	197,816	03	02½	03 "
Pig "	263,934	269,618	411,150	267,891	105,052	50	39	50 "
Bar "	1,203,517	2,270,937	2,527,846	3,352,674	1,763,999	150	140	150 "
Steel,.....	453,214	598,840	743,297	490,108	454,382	150	150	200 "
Hemp,.....	22,214	191,529	9,435	92,374	18,525	200	200	200 "
Salt,.....	576,669	508,389	613,848	651,259	738,471	10	07½	06 "
Coal,.....	108,700	92,700	150,233	162,005	226,208	06	04½	06½ "
Potatoes,...	10,600	22,768	11,800	51,134	9,526	10	10	06 "
Books,.....	130,000	75,340	155,000	237,000	129,000	26	23	26 "
Wheat,.....	—	152,125	984,334	—	—	25	23	25 "
Glass,.....	90,336	208,781	106,000	102,000	67,000	200	168	300 "
O'r Articles,	322,000	210,000	336,000	341,000	100,000	—	—	—
TOTAL,								
Specific,..	6,505,547	9,710,479	8,751,244	8,972,556	5,334,861			
Ad Val.	24,337,110	43,569,774	23,894,498	35,771,700	17,674,030			
Free,...	16,600,150	25,365,715	12,240,201	21,227,215	10,670,802			
GRAND								
TOTAL,...	47,242,807	78,645,968	44,885,943	65,971,471	33,679,693			
In Am. ves.	42,467,326	72,602,500	40,813,882	59,339,422	20,240,078			
In For. do.	4,775,481	5,953,458	4,073,061	6,625,166	4,497,621			
Vessels arr.	908	931	828	878	1,094			
Tonnage,...	344,523	381,092	405,722	412,544	582,424			

EXPORTS OF DOMESTIC PRODUCE TO ENGLAND IN 1839 AND 1840, WITH THE ALTERATION
IN DUTY.

			Present Duty.	Proposed Duty.
Articles.	1839.	1840.	£ s. d.	£ s. d.
Oil, sperm,.....	\$18,978	\$380,037	tun 26 12 0	15 00 0
Lumber,.....	6,064	30,468	—	1 10 0
Wood Articles,.....	145,060	84,007	—	—
Naval Stores,.....	506,215	464,893	—	—
Tar,.....	—	—	0 01 3	0 00 6
Rosin,.....	—	—	0 04 9	0 02 0

<i>Articles.</i>	<i>1839.</i>	<i>1840.</i>	<i>Pres. Duty.</i>	<i>Prop. Duty.</i>
	£ s. d.		£ s. d.	
Turpentine,.....	—	—	0 05 4	0 01 0
Skins and Furs,.....	647,595	1,117,374	30 per cent.	15 per cent.
Tallow,.....	—	17,924	0 03 2	0 00 6
Butter,.....	—	13,674	1 00 0	1 00 0
Wheat,.....	11,073	685,609	—	—
Flour,.....	1,326,600	3,387,343	0 16 2	0 07 6
Corn,.....	467	59,935	—	—
Rye,.....	1,015	14,842	—	—
Apples,.....	21,044	20,560	0 05 0	0 02 9
Rice,.....	423,654	288,190	0 15 0	0 05 0
Cotton,.....	46,074,579	40,945,743	cwt. 0 02 4	0 02 11
Tobacco,.....	5,404,967	3,227,880	0 03 0	0 03 0
do. manufactured,	118,166	152,009	0 09 0	0 09 0
Flaxseed,.....	161,782	119,988	qr. 0 01 0	cwt. 0 05 0
Iron Articles,.....	—	73,226	—	—
Coin,.....	846,790	1,905,957	—	—
Other Articles,.....	187,280	230,000	—	—
Wax,.....	—	7,759	1 10 0	0 10 0
TOTAL,				
Domestic Exports, \$56,971,378		\$54,192,176		
In Amer. vessels,....	43,111,378	43,231,708		
In For'gn vessels,....	12,658,500	10,960,468		

EXPORTS OF FOREIGN GOODS TO GREAT BRITAIN.

<i>Articles.</i>	<i>1834.</i>	<i>1836.</i>	<i>1837.</i>	<i>1839.</i>	<i>1840.</i>	<i>Present Duty.</i>	<i>Proposed Duty.</i>
	£ s. d.			£ s. d.		£ s. d.	
Furs,.....	15,116	28,758	18,528	37,983	22,422 0 0	4 0 0	4 0 0
Hides, Raw,.....	153,129	38,462	119,089	44,220	48,853 0 4	8 0 2	0 0
Wd. Dye, &c.	246,130	54,561	57,231	18,217	93,877 5 0	0 1 10	0 0
Copper,.....	35,340	500	12,000	27,540	18,682 0 15	0 15 p. c.	0 15 p. c.
Gold,.....	270	—	1,015,487	1,960,931	907,988	—	—
Silver,.....	—	2,500	817,583	355,764	1,569,841	—	—
Coffee,.....	247,813	63,195	180,521	11,716	—	0 1 3 0	0 8
Teas,.....	—	18,428	112,913	177,436	753,992 0 2	1 0 2	1 0
Camphor,.....	—	—	36,633	10,200	32,643 0 1	0 0 1	0 0
Silks,.....	—	3,367	29,837	23,780	372,999 0 15	0 0 15	0 0
Wstd. Goods,.....	273,605	—	17,184	16,132	37,695 0 0	6 0 0	6 0 0
Linen,.....	174,987	14,629	50,928	6,427	8,441 0 1 0	15 p. c.	15 p. c.
Cloths,.....	144,505	68,781	130,170	40,980	225,612 15 p. c.	15 p. c.	15 p. c.
Blankets,.....	—	—	8,033	16,986	17,029 15 p. c.	15 p. c.	15 p. c.
Cotton G'ds.,.....	255,000	—	303,170	583,339	112,050 10 p. c.	10 p. c.	10 p. c.
Sewing Silk,.....	—	224,766	31,133	18,043 0 2	0 0 1	1 0	1 0
Indigo,.....	147,077	68,700	57,860	27,805	40,370 0 0 4 0	0 4 0	0 4 0
Wool,.....	247,489	40,293	70,029	36,508	25,234 0 0 1 0	0 1 0	0 1 0
Sugar,.....	—	173,438	166,210	11,327	22,000 3 3 0 3	3 0 3	3 0 3
Cotton,.....	45,383	139,448	165,996	209,989	81,036 0 2 11 0	2 11 0	2 11
Oth. Articles,.....	1,632,000	798,142	1,249,000	876,231	758,429	—	—
TOTAL,							
For'gn Exp'ts, 3,003,704	1,879,305	4,896,768	4,102,751	5,096,882			
In Am. vess.. 1,309,546	549,094	2,886,490	1,328,183	2,773,004			
In For'n vess. 1,634,158	1,333,441	2,010,874	2,774,578	2,361,878			

The necessity for an increase of revenue has sufficed to harmonize the conflicting opinions in relation to high and low tariff, so far as to allow of the imposition of rates as high as will yield the greatest amount of revenue. The vexatious question of the distribution of the proceeds of the public lands at present retards legislative action upon the subject, and leaves commercial affairs in a state of uncertainty at war with the best interests of the country. The reduction of the English duties it is hoped will be attended with an increased trade between the two countries, and result in the double benefit that while it increases the sale of American produce abroad, it will, by reducing the stock, increase the home money value of the remainder.

STATISTICS OF POPULATION.

POPULATION OF THE MIDDLE STATES,

ACCORDING TO THE SIXTH DECENTNIAL CENSUS OF THE UNITED STATES, 1840.

A Statement showing the aggregate amount of each description of persons in the Middle states, by counties.

NEW YORK.

COUNTIES.	FREE WHITE PERSONS.		FREE COLORED PERSONS.		SLAVES.		TOTAL.
	NORTHERN.	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.
Albany,.....	33,758	33,521	595	719	68,593
Allegany,.....	21,318	19,515	67	75	40,975
Broome,.....	11,316	10,799	109	114	22,338
Cattaraugus,.....	14,937	13,897	17	21	28,872
Cayuga,.....	25,482	24,421	238	197	50,338
Chautauque,.....	24,345	23,506	57	67	47,975
Chemung,.....	10,564	10,055	68	45	20,732
Chenango,.....	20,314	20,198	140	133	40,785
Clinton,.....	14,386	13,685	48	38	28,157
Cortlandt,.....	12,385	12,176	21	25	24,607
Delaware,.....	17,776	17,430	100	90	35,396
Erie,.....	32,173	29,684	328	280	62,465
Essex,.....	12,111	11,445	47	31	23,634
Franklin,.....	8,390	8,125	2	1	16,518
Fulton,.....	8,871	9,064	58	56	18,049
Genesee,.....	30,015	29,457	64	51	59,587
Herkimer,.....	19,250	17,940	143	144	37,477
Hamilton,.....	1,051	853	1	2	1,907
Jefferson,.....	31,276	29,567	70	71	60,984
Lewis,.....	9,174	8,603	25	28	17,830
Livingston,.....	18,389	16,611	63	77	35,140
Monroe,.....	33,208	31,039	341	314	64,902
Madison,.....	20,201	19,584	117	106	40,008
Montgomery,.....	18,880	16,350	263	325	35,818
Niagara,.....	16,104	14,787	143	98	31,132
Oneida,.....	42,930	41,736	323	321	85,310
Onondaga,.....	34,904	32,530	229	248	67,911
Ontario,.....	21,872	20,965	315	349	43,501
Orleans,.....	12,923	12,135	37	32	25,127
Oswego,.....	22,439	20,965	105	110	43,619
Otsego,.....	24,560	24,846	112	110	49,628
Rensselaer,.....	29,627	29,442	608	582	60,259
Saratoga,.....	20,202	19,702	306	343	40,553
Schenectady,.....	8,763	8,214	191	219	17,387
Schoharie,.....	16,002	15,863	253	240	32,358
Seneca,.....	12,609	12,066	100	99	24,874
St. Lawrence,.....	28,925	27,746	19	16	56,706
Steuben,.....	23,694	22,156	145	143	46,138
Tioga,.....	10,483	9,882	92	70	20,527
Tompkins,.....	18,996	18,699	134	119	37,948
Washington,.....	20,706	20,102	138	134	41,080
Wayne,.....	21,424	20,411	116	106	42,057
Warren,.....	6,861	6,529	18	14	13,422
Yates,.....	10,335	9,975	69	65	20,444
North. TOTAL,...	853,929	816,276	6,435	6,428	1,683,068

POPULATION OF THE MIDDLE STATES.—Continued.
NEW YORK.—Continued.

COUNTIES.	FREE WHITE PERSONS.		FREE COLORED PERSONS.		SLAVES.		TOTAL.
	SOUTHERN.	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.
N. Y. city & co.	142,731	153,621	6,923	9,435	312,710
Green,.....	15,072	14,481	446	447	30,446
Ulster,.....	• 22,591	21,427	854	950	45,822
Sullivan,.....	8,168	7,381	40	40	15,629
Columbia,.....	21,254	20,442	739	817	43,252
Putnam,.....	6,513	6,144	93	74	1	12,825
Westchester,.....	24,533	21,853	1,288	1,012	48,686
Richmond,.....	5,247	5,235	250	233	10,965
Suffolk,.....	15,395	14,897	1,155	1,022	32,469
Kings,.....	21,917	22,850	1,368	1,475	3	47,613
Queens,.....	13,825	12,990	1,755	1,754	30,324
Rockland,.....	6,192	5,351	227	205	11,975
Orange,.....	24,725	23,722	1,124	1,168	50,739
Dutchess,.....	25,265	24,863	1,112	1,158	52,398
South. Total,....	353,428	355,257	17,374	19,790	4	745,853

RECAPITULATION OF NEW YORK.

Population of the Northern District,.....	1,683,068
" Southern District,.....	745,853

TOTAL,..... 2,428,921

NEW JERSEY.—*As above.*

COUNTIES.	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.	TOTAL.
Bergen,.....	5,909	5,563	843	686.	118	104	13,223
Essex,.....	20,832	21,861	899	1,009	13	7	44,621
Hudson,.....	4,718	4,435	197	122	4	7	9,483
Passaic,.....	8,931	7,011	377	329	32	54	16,734
Morris,.....	12,606	12,290	485	426	17	20	25,844
Warren,.....	10,267	9,636	242	213	4	4	20,366
Sussex,.....	10,929	10,474	180	174	4	9	21,770
Somerset,.....	7,877	7,821	915	737	43	62	17,455
Middlesex,.....	9,952	10,378	715	820	10	18	21,893
Hunterdon,.....	11,991	11,985	389	389	16	19	24,789
Mercer,.....	9,691	9,476	1,112	1,207	10	12	21,502
Monmouth,.....	15,716	14,928	1,108	1,072	32	53	32,909
Burlington,.....	15,434	15,753	828	815	1	32,831
Gloucester,.....	12,151	11,656	836	795	25,438
Atlantic,.....	4,418	4,074	120	114	8,726
Salem,.....	7,251	6,976	967	829	1	16,024
Cumberland,.....	6,796	6,682	475	421	14,374
Cape May,.....	2,586	2,540	92	106	5,324
TOTAL,....	177,055	174,533	10,780	10,264	303	371	373,306

DELAWARE.—*As above.*

COUNTIES.	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.	TOTAL.
Newcastle,.....	12,797	13,009	3,476	3,297	298	243	33,120
Kent,.....	6,885	6,733	2,952	2,875	232	195	19,872
Sussex,.....	9,577	9,560	2,198	2,121	841	796	25,093
TOTAL,....	29,259	29,302	8,626	8,293	1,371	1,234	78,085

POPULATION OF THE MIDDLE STATES.—Continued.
PENNSYLVANIA.

COUNTIES.	FREE WHITE PERSONS.		FREE COLORED PERSONS.		SLAVES.		TOTAL.	
	Eastern.	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.	
Adams,.....	11,188	11,164		337	353		2	23,044
Berks,.....	32,313	31,730		283	241		2	64,569
Bucks,.....	23,435	22,933		937	802			48,107
Chester,.....	26,825	26,547		2,187	1,956			57,515
Cumberland,.....	15,043	14,890		492	504	18	6	30,953
Dauphin,.....	14,894	14,267		449	508			30,118
Delaware,.....	9,239	9,219		720	613			19,791
Franklin,.....	17,955	17,805		979	1,054			37,793
Lancaster,.....	40,781	40,417		1,534	1,469		2	84,203
Lebanon,.....	10,733	11,036		50	53			21,872
Lehigh,.....	12,898	12,856		23	10			25,787
Monroe,.....	5,135	4,694		29	21			9,879
Montgomery,.....	24,523	22,038		362	318			47,241
Northampton,.....	20,831	20,001		92	72			40,996
Perry,.....	8,564	8,378		81	73			17,096
Philadelphia,.....	111,887	126,317		8,316	11,515		2	258,037
Pike,.....	1,946	1,737		74	75			3,832
Schuylkill,.....	14,937	13,791		177	148			29,053
Wayne,.....	6,227	5,582		20	19			11,848
York,.....	22,924	23,112		496	477		1	47,010
East. TOTAL,...	431,578	439,214		17,638	20,281	18	15	908,744
WESTERN.								
Alleghany,.....	39,982	39,135		1,076	1,042			81,235
Clinton,.....	4,331	3,916		43	33			8,323
Warren,.....	4,891	4,347		23	17			9,278
Bedford,.....	14,802	14,063		261	209			29,335
Mifflin,.....	6,492	6,152		220	207	12	9	13,092
Columbia,.....	12,286	11,906		36	39			24,267
Green,.....	9,510	9,223		205	208	1		19,147
Susquehanna,.....	10,766	10,332		49	48			21,195
Fayette,.....	16,129	15,980		705	759	1		33,574
Washington,.....	20,232	19,932		557	556		2	41,279
Butler,.....	11,527	10,790		33	28			22,378
Armstrong,.....	14,309	13,944		56	56			28,365
Juniata,.....	5,512	5,459		63	45	1		11,080
Beaver,.....	14,760	14,342		139	127			29,368
Northumberland,.....	10,109	9,813		56	49			20,027
Indiana,.....	10,470	10,157		83	72			20,782
Union,.....	11,360	11,340		49	35	2	1	22,787
Erie,.....	16,282	14,962		62	38			31,344
Huntingdon,.....	18,146	16,831		254	253			35,484
Lycoming,.....	11,381	10,909		185	174			22,649
Venango,.....	9,350	8,523		18	9			17,900
Somerset,.....	9,971	9,597		45	37			19,650
McKean,.....	1,562	1,408		3	2			2,975
Centre,.....	10,453	9,738		160	141			20,492
Tioga,.....	8,012	7,417		34	35			15,498
Jefferson,.....	3,828	3,368		23	34			7,253
Potter,.....	1,753	1,617		1				3,371
Westmoreland,...	21,183	21,225		177	113		1	42,690
Crawford,.....	16,566	15,043		63	52			31,720
Mercer,.....	16,576	15,969		169	159			32,870
Cambria,.....	5,778	5,380		47	51			11,256
Luzerne,.....	23,581	20,230		107	87		1	44,006
Clearfield,.....	4,083	3,694		35	22			7,834
Bradford,.....	17,219	15,389		77	84			32,769
West. TOTAL,...	413,192	392,131		5,114	4,821	17	14	815,289

POPULATION OF THE MIDDLE STATES.—*Continued.*
MARYLAND.

COUNTIES.	FREE WHITE PERSONS.		FREE COLORED PERSONS.		SLAVES.		TOTAL.
	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.	
Alleghany,.....	8,127	6,536	113	102	374	438	15,690
Washington,.....	12,668	12,056	772	808	1,288	1,258	28,850
Frederick,.....	14,415	14,560	1,443	1,542	2,361	2,084	36,405
Carroll,.....	7,533	7,688	450	448	596	526	17,241
Baltimore,.....	50,908	54,423	8,963	12,490	3,473	4,122	134,379
Harford,.....	6,154	5,887	1,257	1,179	1,354	1,289	17,120
Montgomery,.....	4,397	4,369	646	667	2,799	2,578	15,456
Prince George,...	3,860	3,963	585	495	5,414	5,222	19,539
St. Mary's,.....	3,043	3,027	699	694	2,926	2,835	13,224
Calvert,.....	1,866	1,719	722	752	2,104	2,066	9,229
Charles,.....	2,968	3,054	401	418	4,615	4,567	16,023
Anne Arundel,...	7,297	7,333	2,513	2,570	5,179	4,640	29,532
Cecil,.....	6,844	6,485	1,318	1,233	708	644	17,232
Kent,.....	2,880	2,736	1,275	1,216	1,517	1,218	10,842
Caroline,.....	2,694	2,640	861	859	397	355	7,806
Talbot,.....	3,095	2,968	1,170	1,170	1,907	1,780	12,090
Queen Anne,....	3,175	2,957	1,308	1,233	2,088	1,872	12,633
Somerset,.....	5,654	5,831	1,240	1,406	2,863	2,514	19,508
Dorchester,.....	5,355	5,274	1,925	2,062	2,216	2,011	18,843
Worcester,.....	5,871	5,894	1,526	1,547	1,889	1,650	18,377
TOTAL,...	158,804	159,400	29,187	32,891	46,068	43,669	470,019

STATISTICS OF COINAGE.

COST OF COINAGE AT THE U. S. MINT AND ITS BRANCHES.

We compile the following particulars of the cost of coinage at the several mints of the United States, from a report laid before Congress, March 31, 1842:—

The cost of coining 100 pieces at the New Orleans branch mint was, for 1838, \$15 40; for 1839, \$2 99; for 1840, \$1 50; and for 1841, \$1 41.

The cost of coining 100 pieces at the Charlotte branch mint was, for 1838, \$72 18; for 1839, \$35 30; for 1840, \$37 70; and for 1841, \$37 79.

The cost of coining 100 pieces at the Dahlonega branch mint was, for 1838, \$67 04; for 1839, \$42 62; for 1840, \$43 51; and for 1841, \$28 50.

The actual cost of coining \$100 worth at the Philadelphia mint was, for 1838, \$1 52; for 1839, \$2 07; for 1840, \$2 48; and for 1841, \$4 34; the average of the four years being \$2 23.

The cost of coining \$100 worth at the New Orleans branch mint was, for 1838 \$154 06; for 1839, \$19 72; for 1840, \$5 68; and for 1841, \$8 12; the average for the last two years—the first two not being a fair criterion of the average cost, being \$6 68.

The cost of coining \$100 worth at the Charlotte branch mint was, for 1838, \$17 82; for 1839, \$9 03; for 1840, \$9 44; and for 1841, \$9 02; the average of the four years being \$10 59, and that of the last three years \$9 15.

The cost of coining \$100 worth at the Dahlonega branch mint was, for 1838, \$12 43; for 1839, \$10 78; for 1840, \$9 32; and for 1841, \$6 06; the average of the four years being \$9 47.

The actual cost of coining \$100 worth at the Philadelphia mint was, for 1838, \$1 52;

for 1839, \$2 07; for 1840, \$2 48; and for 1841, \$4 34; the average of the four years being \$2 23.

The cost of coining \$100 worth at the New Orleans branch mint was, for 1838, \$154 06; for 1839, \$19 72; for 1840, \$5 68; and for 1841, \$8 12. The first of these should be excluded, and perhaps the second, as any foundation for a judgment respecting this mint. The average for the last two years was \$6 68.

The cost of coining \$100 worth at the Charlotte branch mint was, for 1838, \$17 82; for 1839, \$9 03; for 1840, \$9 44; and for 1841, \$9 02; the average of the four years being \$10 59, and that of the last three years \$9 15.

The cost of coining \$100 worth at the Dahlonega branch mint was, for 1838, \$12 43; for 1839, \$10 78; for 1840, \$9 32; and for 1841, \$6 06; the average of the four years being \$9 47; and that of the last three \$8 49.

The cost of coining 100 *pieces* of coin at the Philadelphia mint was, in 1838, \$0 39; for 1839, \$0 67; for 1840, \$0 79; and for 1841, \$1 12; the average for the four years being 64 cents.

The cost of coining 100 *pieces* at the New Orleans branch mint was, for 1838, \$15 40; for 1839, \$2 99; for 1840, \$1 50; and for 1841, \$1 41.

The cost of coining 100 *pieces* at the Charlotte branch mint was, for 1838, \$72 18; for 1839, \$35 30; for 1840, \$37 70; and for 1841, \$37 79.

The cost of coining 100 *pieces* at the Dahlonega branch mint was, for 1838, \$67 04; for 1839, \$42 62; for 1840, \$42 51; and for 1841, \$28 50.

For a complete and comprehensive view of the movement of the United States Mint and its branches, see *MERCHANTS' MAGAZINE*, for April, 1842, vol. 6, number 4, pp. 375, 376, 377, 378, 379, 380, 381.

I.—COINAGE OF THE BRANCH MINTS OF THE UNITED STATES.

Statement of the amounts coined annually at the branch mints, from the commencement of their operations until December 31, 1841.

MINTS.	Periods.	WHOLE COINAGE.	
		Number of Pieces.	Value.
Charlotte, North Carolina,.....	1838	20,786	\$84,165 00
	do. do.	41,640	162,767 50
	do. do.	31,828	127,055 00
	do. do.	31,748	133,037 50
	TOTAL,.....	125,996	507,025 00
Dahlonega, Georgia,.....	1838	20,583	102,915 00
	do. do.	32,613	128,880 00
	do. do.	26,428	123,310 00
	do. do.	34,659	162,885 00
	TOTAL,.....	114,283	517,990 00
New Orleans, Louisiana,.....	1838	402,430	40,243 00
	do. do.	2,476,996	263,650 00
	do. do.	3,446,900	915,600 00
	do. do.	3,693,730	640,200 00
	TOTAL,.....	10,020,056	1,859,693 00
Sum of totals,.....		10,260,335	\$2,884,708 00

II.—DEPOSITS FOR COINAGE AT THE UNITED STATES MINT AND ITS BRANCHES.

Statement of the Annual Amounts of Deposits of Gold for Coinage, at the Mint of the United States and its Branches, from Mines in the United States; taken from the last Annual Report of Dr. R. M. Patterson, Director of the Mint, dated January 19, 1842.

PERIODS.	DEPOSITED AT THE UNITED STATES MINT.						DEPOSITED AT THE BRANCH MINTS.				
	From Va- ri-	From North Carolina.	From South Caro- lina.	From Georgi- a.	From Ten- nessee.	From Ala- -ba- ma.	Total at United States Mint.	At Char- lotte, North Carolina.	At Dah- lonega, Georgia.	Total at New Or- leans.	
1824	\$5,000						\$5,000			\$5,000	
1825	17,000						17,000			17,000	
1826	20,000						20,000			20,000	
1827	21,000						21,000			21,000	
1828	46,000						46,000			46,000	
1829	\$2,500	134,000	\$3,500				140,000			140,000	
1830	24,000	204,000	26,000	\$212,000			466,000			466,000	
1831	26,000	294,000	22,000	176,000	\$1,000		520,000			520,000	
1832	34,000	458,000	45,000	140,000	1,000		678,000			678,000	
1833	104,000	475,000	66,000	216,000	7,000		868,000			868,000	
1834	62,000	380,000	38,000	415,000	3,000		898,000			898,000	
1835	60,400	263,500	42,400	319,900	100		698,500			698,500	
1836	62,000	148,100	55,200	201,400	300		467,000			467,000	
1837	52,100	116,900	29,400	83,600			282,000			282,000	
1838	55,000	66,000	13,000	36,000	1,500		200	171,700	\$127,000	\$700	
1839	57,600	53,500	6,300	20,300	\$500		138,500	126,836	113,035	6,869	
1840	38,935	5,319	91,113	104	4,431		1,76,766	124,726	121,858	2,835	
1841	25,736	76,431	3,440	139,796	1,212	1,863		248,748	129,847	161,974	1,818
604,331	2,815,235	355,559	2,051,109	15,516	6,794	13,400	5,861,944	508,409	532,567	12,222	1,053,198

It will be seen by this table that, from and including the year 1829, the annual amount of gold from the mines in the United States, deposited for coinage, rapidly increased till 1834, when it reached its maximum. Since then, notwithstanding the establishment of the branch mints, and the stimulus which they were expected to give to the mining operations, the amount has greatly diminished. It will be observed, also, that nearly one-half of the whole amount of gold obtained from the mines of the United States and deposited for coinage, since the establishment of the branch mints, has been deposited at and coined by the principal mint, notwithstanding the vicinity of the branch mints in Georgia and North Carolina to the principal mines.

BANK STATISTICS.

PRICE OF BANK NOTES AT PHILADELPHIA FOR TWENTY-EIGHT YEARS, FROM 1814 TO 1841.

The following table was prepared by William M. Gouge, Esq., editor of the "Journal of Banking," and author of "A Short History of Paper Money and Banking." It was compiled (with the exception of the column for 1841) from various tables, prepared by Mr. Gouge or under his direction, while in the Treasury Department. It is well worth the labor that has been bestowed upon it, for to those who will make a proper use of it, it will serve as a condensed history of the currency for more than a quarter of a century. A few prominent facts should be borne in mind in perusing this table.

On the 30th of August, 1814, the Philadelphia banks suspended specie payments for the *first time*, and the other banks in the middle and southern states within a week or two of that date. The New Orleans banks had suspended payment in the April previous; but the banks of Kentucky and Ohio continued to pay specie till about the 1st of January, 1815; and the only bank then in Tennessee did not suspend payment till July or August, 1815. Through the whole of this, the *first* general suspension of specie payments, the banks of New England continued to pay specie, with the exception of a few banks in Maine that stopped payment early in 1814.

During the first suspension of specie payments, the notes of non-specie-paying banks were received in payment of public dues.

On the 1st of January, 1817, the Bank of the United States commenced operations at Philadelphia. Of the effect it had in "regulating the currency," the reader can judge for himself. The table gives the prices of western and southern bank notes at Philadelphia, in that and each subsequent year.

On the 21st of February, 1817, the United States government refused any longer to receive the notes of non-specie-paying banks in payment of public dues.

In 1824, the system known as the Suffolk Bank system (a description of which was published in vol. v. pages 261, 262, of the Merchants' Magazine) was adopted in New England. The reader, on scanning the table, will not fail to be struck with the *uniformity* of value which the notes of the many hundred banks of the eastern states have since maintained, and this whether the banks have sustained or suspended specie payments.

On the 11th of May, 1837, the New York and Natchez banks suspended specie payments; and as fast as the news spread from these two cities, east, west, north, and south, the other banks suspended also. In this, the *second* general suspension of specie payments, the banks of New England were included.

In one year afterwards, or in May, 1838, the New York banks resumed specie payments, and their conduct was immediately followed by the banks of New England. These banks have since (with the exception of the banks of Rhode Island) steadily maintained specie payments.

In August, 1838, the banks of Philadelphia professed to resume specie payments; and by the 1st of January, 1839, there was at least a *nominal* resumption of specie payments throughout the Union.

In a little more than a year, or on the 9th of October, 1839, the banks of Philadelphia suspended specie payments for the *third* time, and their example was quickly imitated by all the banks to the south and west, and also by the banks of West Jersey and Rhode Island. The Bank of Missouri did not, indeed, suspend payment on its own notes; but as it traded on the notes of other western banks, it became an issuer of convertible paper. The banks of Rhode Island soon resumed specie payments. The banks of South Carolina resumed specie payments in June or July, 1840. All the other banks to

the south and west of New York (with the exception of the East Jersey banks, and a few others scattered in different places) continued to refuse payment of specie on demand.

January 15th, 1841, the banks of Philadelphia resumed specie payments, and sustained them for about twenty days, or until the 4th of February. They then, for the fourth time, suspended specie payments; and did not resume them again till the 18th and 19th of March, 1842.

prices of bank notes at Philadelphia, in each year, from October 31st, 1811, to December 31st, 1841.

[In this table, p stands for premium; d for discount: α is an abbreviation of the Latin *ad. to.*]

<i>Banks of—</i>	1814.	1815.	1816.	1817.	1818.	1819.	1820.	1821.
Maine,.....	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
New Hampshire,.....	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Vermont,.....	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Boston,.....	par a 20 p.	7 a 25 p.	5 a 17 p.	2 d. a 4 p.	par a 1½ d.	—	4 d.	1 a 2 d.
Other Massachusetts,.....	—	—	—	—	—	—	2 a 4 d.	3 a 4 d.
Rhode Island,.....	—	—	—	—	—	—	1 a 4 d.	1 a 2 d.
Connecticut,.....	—	—	—	—	—	—	1 a 5 d.	1 a 2 d.
New York city,.....	par a 2 p.	par a 6 p.	3 a 9½ p.	par a 3½ p.	par. 2 a 4 d.	2 a 6 d.	1 a 3 d.	1 a 6 d.
New York country,.....	—	—	—	—	—	—	standard.	standard.
Philadelphia,.....	—	—	—	—	—	—	par a 4 d.	par a 3 d.
Other Pennsylvania,.....	7½ d.	3 a 10 d.	4½ a 14 d.	par a 9 d.	par a 5 d.	par a 2 d.	par a 1 d.	par.
New Jersey,.....	—	—	—	—	—	—	par.	par.
Delaware,.....	1 a 4 d.	2 a 5 d.	3 a 9 d.	par a 10 d.	par a 30 d.	par a 30 d.	par.	par.
Baltimore,.....	3 a 5 d.	2 a 6½ d.	2½ a 7 d.	par a 4½ d.	par a 1½ d.	1 a 2½ d.	½ d.	½ d.
Other Maryland,.....	—	—	—	3 a 10 d.	2 a 30 d.	2 a 8 d.	1 a 3 d.	1 a 3 d.
District of Columbia,.....	—	—	—	4 a 10 d.	par a 6 d.	par a 2½ d.	1 a 3 d.	1 a 3 d.
Virginia,.....	5 a 10 d.	par a 8 d.	par a 6 p.	1 p. a 2 d.	1 p. a 2 d.	14 a 8 d.	1 a 2 d.	1 a 2 d.
Virginia, Western,.....	—	—	—	—	—	8 a 12½ d.	5 a 8 d.	—
North Carolina,.....	5 a 10 d.	2½ p. a 8 d.	par a 6 p.	1 p. a 3 d.	1½ a 6 d.	3 a 17½ d.	2 a 10 d.	2 a 4½ d.
South Carolina,.....	5 a 10 d.	—	2 a 8 p.	2 d. a 4 p.	½ a 3 d.	1½ a 8 d.	par a 6 d.	3 a 3 d.
Georgia,.....	5 a 10 d.	—	—	1 d.	1 a 4 d.	2 a 14 d.	1½ a 10 d.	1 a 5 d.
Alabama,.....	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Louisiana,.....	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Mississippi,.....	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Tennessee,.....	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Kentucky,.....	5 a 7½ d.	3 a 10 d.	6 a 10 d.	5 a 6 d.	4½ a 12½ d.	12½ a 20 d.	few sales.	35 d.
Ohio,.....	—	—	5 a 12 d.	4½ a 6 d.	4½ a 10 d.	12½ a 25 d.	30 a 50 d.	30 a 50 d.
Michigan,.....	—	—	—	4 a 15 d.	4½ a 12½ d.	15 a 30 d.	12½ a 25 d.	5 a 12½ d.
U. S. Branch Bank Notes,.....	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
American Silver,.....	7 a 12 p.	2 a 17 p.	7 a 17 p.	—	—	—	—	—

A Table showing the highest and lowest prices of bank notes at Philadelphia, in each year, from October 31st, 1814, to December 31st, 1841.—Continued.

A Table showing the highest and lowest prices of bank notes at Philadelphia, in each year, from October 31st, 1814, to December 31st, 1841.—Continued.

Banks of—	1832.	1833.	1834.	1835.	1836.	1837.	1838.	1839.	1840.	1841.
Maine,.....	1 d.	1 a 1 d.	1 a 1 d.	1 d.	1 a 1 d.	1 a 1 d.	par a 2 d.	2 d. a 3 p.	2 d. a 5 p.	2 d. a 5 p.
New Hampshire,.....	1 a 1 d.	1 a 1 d.	1 a 1 d.	1 d.	1 a 1 d.	1 a 1 d.	par a 2 d.	2 a 5 p.	2 a 5 p.	2 a 5 p.
Vermont,.....	1 a 1 d.	1 a 1 d.	1 a 1 d.	1 d.	1 a 1 d.	1 a 1 d.	par a 2 d.	2 a 5 p.	2 a 5 p.	2 a 5 p.
Massachusetts,.....	1 a 1 d.	1 a 1 d.	1 a 1 d.	1 d.	1 a 1 d.	1 a 1 d.	par a 2 d.	2 a 6 p.	2 a 6 p.	2 a 6 p.
Rhode Island,.....	1 a 1 d.	1 a 1 d.	1 a 1 d.	1 d.	1 a 1 d.	1 a 1 d.	par a 2 d.	2 a 6 p.	2 a 6 p.	2 a 6 p.
Connecticut,.....	1 a 1 d.	1 a 1 d.	1 a 1 d.	1 d.	1 a 1 d.	1 a 1 d.	par a 2 d.	2 a 6 p.	2 a 6 p.	2 a 6 p.
New York city,.....	par a ½ d.	par a ½ d.	par a ½ d.	par a ½ d.	par a ½ d.	par a ½ d.	par a 1 d.	par a 13 p.	2 d. a 7 p.	2 d. a 6 p.
New York city,.....	1 a 1 d.	1 a 1 d.	1 a 1 d.	1 d.	1 a 1 d.	1 a 1 d.	par a 3 d.	par a 10 p.	2 d. a 5 p.	2 d. a 6 p.
Philadelphia,.....	standard.	standard.	standard.	standard.	standard.	standard.	standard.	standard.	standard.	standard.
Other Pennsylvania,.....	par a 1 ½ d.	par a 2 d.	par a 1 ½ d.	par a 2 d.	par a 2 d.	par a 2 d.	par a 3 d.	par a 3 d.	par a 3 d.	par a 5 d.
New Jersey,.....	par a 1 d.	par a 1 d.	par a 1 d.	par a 1 d.	par a 1 d.	par a 1 d.	par a 2 d.	par a 2 d.	par a 2 d.	par a 3 d.
Delaware,.....
Baltimore,.....	par a ¼ d.	par a ¼ d.	par a ¼ d.	par a ¼ d.	par a ¼ d.	par a ¼ d.	par a ¼ d.	par a 4 d.	par a 1 ½ d.	par a 1 ½ d.
Other Maryland,.....	1 a 1 d.	1 a 1 d.	1 a 1 d.	1 a 1 d.	1 a 1 d.	1 a 1 d.	1 a 1 d.	1 a 1 d.	1 a 2 d.	1 a 3 d.
District of Columbia,.....	1 a 4 d.	1 a 1 d.	1 a 1 d.	1 a 1 d.	1 a 1 d.	1 a 1 d.	1 a 1 d.	1 a 2 d.	1 a 3 d.	1 a 3 d.
Virginia,.....	1 a 1 d.	1 a 1 d.	1 a 1 d.	1 a 1 d.	1 a 1 d.	1 a 1 d.	1 a 1 d.	1 a 3 d.	1 a 4 d.	1 a 5 d.
Virginia, Western,.....	1 ½ a 2 ½ d.	1 ½ a 3 d.	1 ½ a 11 d.	1 ½ a 11 d.	1 ½ a 2 ½ d.	1 ½ a 2 ½ d.	1 ½ a 4 d.	1 ½ a 4 d.	1 ½ a 5 d.	2 a 3 d.
North Carolina,.....	1 ½ a 2 d.	1 ½ a 3 d.	1 ½ a 11 d.	1 ½ a 11 d.	1 ½ a 2 d.	1 ½ a 2 d.	1 ½ a 3 d.	1 ½ a 6 d.	1 ½ a 6 d.	1 ½ a 6 d.
South Carolina,.....	1 ½ a 2 d.	1 ½ a 3 d.	2 a 7 d.	2 d.	2 a 3 d.	2 a 3 d.	2 a 3 d.	2 ½ a 10 d.	1 a 7 d.	2 d. a 3 p.
Georgia,.....	2 ½ a 10 d.	3 ½ a 10 d.	4 a 7 d.	2 a 3 d.	3 a 12 d.	3 a 12 d.	3 a 10 d.	2 ½ a 10 d.	1 ½ a 30 d.	1 ½ a 40 d.
Florida,.....	10 d.	10 a 20 d.	no sales.	no sales.	no sales.	no sales.	no sales.	no sales.	no sales.	75 d.
Alabama,.....	5 d.	4 a 10 d.	5 d.	5 d.	4 a 8 d.	5 a 15 d.	5 a 20 d.	5 a 20 d.	2 a 15 d.	2 a 10 d.
Louisiana,.....	4 a 5 d.	3 a 5 d.	2 ½ a 3 d.	2 ½ a 3 d.	2 ½ a 6 d.	5 a 15 d.	2 ½ a 12 ½ d.	2 ½ a 12 ½ d.	1 p. a 10 d.	1 p. a 10 d.
Mississippi,.....	5 d.	5 a 6 d.	8 a 10 d.	4 a 5 d.	3 a 6 d.	6 a 20 d.	7 ½ a 30 d.	5 a 15 d.	15 a 80 d.	20 a 80 d.
Tennessee,.....	5 d.	3 a 5 d.	5 d.	5 d.	3 a 6 d.	5 a 15 d.	5 a 20 d.	4 a 15 d.	5 ½ a 10 d.	6 a 15 d.
Kentucky,.....	20 a 25 d.	3 a 25 d.	2 a 5 d.	2 ½ a 3 d.	2 ½ a 3 d.	2 ½ a 8 d.	2 ½ a 8 d.	2 ½ a 5 ½ d.	3 a 5 d.	4 a 7 d.
Missouri,.....	no sales.	no sales.	no sales.	no sales.	no sales.	no sales.	4 a 6 d.	5 a 6 d.	5 a 7 d.
Illinois,.....	no sales.	no sales.	no sales.	no sales.	3 a 5 d.	3 a 8 d.	2 ½ a 6 ½ d.	3 a 6 d.	3 ½ a 8 d.	3 ½ a 10 d.
Indiana,.....	no sales.	no sales.	no sales.	no sales.	3 a 4 d.	3 a 3 ½ d.	2 ½ a 6 ½ d.	3 a 6 d.	3 ½ a 5 d.	3 ½ a 15 d.
Ohio,.....	1 ½ a 3 d.	1 ½ a 4 d.	2 a 4 d.	2 ½ a 3 d.	2 d.	2 ½ a 3 d.	2 ½ a 6 ½ d.	2 ½ a 6 d.	3 ½ a 5 d.	3 ½ a 18 d.
Michigan,.....	1 ½ d.	1 ½ a 2 d.	2 a 2 ½ d.	2 d.	—	—	5 a 15 d.	5 a 20 d.	5 a 10 d.	10 a 18 d.
American Silver,.....	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	— a 6 ½ p.
							par a 12 p.	3 a 6 p.	2 ½ a 7 p.	—

BANK OF FRANCE.

The "Moniteur" publishes the account of the operations of the Bank of France during the first three months of 1842. On the 25th of March there were 211,909,148f. in specie deposited in its vaults. The commercial bills discounted amounted to 152,559,492f.; the advances on ingots and money, to 3,023,600f.; the advances on public securities, to 10,662,071f.; the current accounts, debtors, to 16,146,188f.; the capital of the branch banks, to 20,000,000f.; the reserve, to 10,000,000f.; the lodgements in public securities, to 50,187,018f.; the hotel and furniture of the bank, to 4,000,000f.; and various debts and other objects, to 362,620f.; making the assets of the bank amount in all to 478,550,140f. The bank notes in circulation at the same period, exclusive of those issued by the branch banks, represented a sum of 228,180,500f.; and the bills to order, to 1,102,969f. The discounts, advances, and loans on commercial bills during the three months, amounted to 229,120,000f.; on ingots and money, to 7,335,600f.; on public securities, to 10,006,900f.; on mint bonds, to 863,700f.; in all, to 247,326,600f.

COMMERCIAL REGULATIONS.

RATES OF FREIGHT AND PASSAGE ON LAKE ERIE, FOR 1842.

The Buffalo Commercial Advertiser publishes the following table of freights and passage on Lake Erie, &c., as established for the season of 1842:—

ON LAKE ERIE, TO NOV. 1ST.					
BUFFALO TO	Cabin.	Steerage.	Horse.	Wagon.	
Dunkirk,.....	\$2 00	\$1 50	\$2 00	\$2 50 a	\$3 50
Erie,.....	2 50	2 00	2 50	"	
Conneaut, {	3 50	2 00	3 50	"	
Ashtabula, {	4 00	2 50	4 00	"	
Fairport,.....	4 50	2 50	4 50	"	
Cleveland,.....	5 50	3 00	5 50	"	
Charleston, {	6 50	3 00	6 50	"	
Huron, {	7 50	3 00	7 50	"	
Sandusky, {	8 50	3 00	8 50	"	
Toledo, &c.					
Monroe, {	9 50	3 00	9 50	"	
Detroit,.....	10 50	3 00	10 50	"	
CLEVELAND TO					
Huron,.....	{ 2 00	1 00	2 00	"	
Sandusky,.....	{ 3 00	2 00	3 00	"	
Toledo, &c..					
Monroe,.....	{ 4 00	3 00	4 00	"	
Detroit,.....	{ 5 00	4 00	5 00	"	

PRICE OF FREIGHT UNTIL NOV. 1ST.

BUFFALO TO		Heavy.	Light.	Bulk.
		100 lbs.	100 lbs.	
Silver Creek, Dunkirk, Barcelona, Erie, Con-	neaut, Ashtabula, Grand River, Cleveland,	{ 20 c.	40 c.	—
Charleston, Huron, Sandusky, Toledo, &c.,	Monroe, Detroit,.....	{ 25	46	—
				50

Down freight from ports upon Lake Erie to Buffalo, will pay as follows:—

Flour,.....	barrel 20 cents.	Tobacco,.....	100 lbs. 15 cents.
Wheat,.....	barrel 18 "	Ashes,.....	" 10 "
Provisions,.....	100 lbs. 10 "	Wool and Pelties,.....	" 25 "
Seeds,.....	100 lbs. 15 "	Bacon,.....	hhds. \$1 50

PASSAGE TO THE UPPER LAKES, UNTIL OCTOBER 1ST.

BUFFALO TO	Cabin.	Steerage.	Horse.	Wagon.
Mackinac,.....	\$16 00	\$8 00	\$15 00	\$5 00 a 7 00
Milwaukie, {	18 00	10 00	15 00	5 00 a 7 00
Racine, {				
Southport, {				
Chicago,.....				

Commercial Regulations.

CLEVELAND TO	<i>Cabin.</i>	<i>Steerage.</i>	<i>Horse.</i>	<i>Wagon.</i>
Mackinac,.....	14 00	7 50	12 50	3 00 a 5 00
Chicago, &c.	15 00	8 00	14 00	4 00 a 6 00
DETROIT TO				
Mackinac,.....	10 00	6 00	10 00	2 50 a 4 50
Chicago, &c.	12 00	7 00	12 00	3 00 a 5 00

PRICE OF FREIGHT UNTIL SEPT. 1ST.

BUFFALO TO	<i>Heavy.</i>	<i>Light.</i>	<i>Barrel.</i>	<i>Bulk.</i>
	100 lbs.	100 lbs.		
Mackinac,.....	50 c.	75 c.	—	—
Milwaukie, Racine, Southport, and Chicago,	50	87½	{	\$1 50
Household Furniture,.....	—	—	{	—
CLEVELAND TO				
Mackinac,.....	50	75		
Chicago, &c.	50	87½		
DETROIT TO				
Mackinac,.....	37½	62½	{	1 25
Chicago, &c.	50	75	{	

Down freight from the upper lakes will be charged as follows:—

Flour,.....	barrel	40 cents.	Ashes,.....	100 lbs.	20 cents.
Provisions,.....	barrel	62½ "	Hides,.....	each	15 "
Wheat,.....	bushel	15 a 22	Lead,.....	ton	\$3 75

The charges upon wheat are subject to variations. In the early part of last season, wheat in sacks was brought from the upper lakes to Buffalo for 12½ cents per bushel; but in the autumn, when the demand was good and when a full supply was in store at the west, double that price was paid.

PRESENT RATES OF PILOTAGE FOR TYBEE BAR AND RIVER SAVANNAH.

As Revised by a Law of the State of Georgia, passed December, 1836, adding twenty per cent to the former rates.

DRAFT OF WATER.	BAR PILOTAGE, AND TO COCKSPUR, OR SAFE ANCHORAGE.		FROM COCKSPUR TO SAVANNAH.		TOTAL AMOUNT.	
	Feet.	U. S. Vess.	For. Vess.	U. S. Vess.	For. Vess.	U. S. Vess.
6	\$6 72 c.	\$10 08 c.	\$4 08 c.	\$6 12 c.	\$10 80 c.	\$16 20 c.
7	7 50	11 25	4 50	6 75	12 00	18 00
8	8 22	12 33	4 98	7 47	13 20	19 80
9	10 14	15 21	6 13	9 20	16 27	24 40
10	11 40	17 10	6 90	10 35	18 30	27 45
11	13 32	19 98	7 98	11 97	21 30	31 95
12	16 08	24 12	9 72	14 58	25 80	38 70
12½	17 76	26 64	10 74	16 11	28 50	42 75
13	19 56	29 34	11 79	17 68	31 35	47 02
13½	21 42	32 13	12 93	19 39	34 35	51 52
14	22 14	33 21	13 26	19 89	35 40	53 10
14½	23 46	35 19	14 07	21 11	37 53	56 30
15	25 56	38 34	15 39	23 08	40 95	61 42
15½	27 00	40 50	16 23	24 35	43 23	64 85
16	28 50	42 75	17 10	25 65	45 60	68 40
16½	30 00	45 00	18 03	27 05	48 03	72 05
17	32 34	48 51	19 41	29 11	51 75	77 62
17½	33 90	50 85	20 40	30 60	54 30	81 45
18	35 58	53 37	21 42	32 13	57 00	85 50
18½	37 32	55 98	22 41	33 62	59 73	89 60
19	39 84	59 46	23 91	35 86	63 75	95 62
19½	41 64	62 76	24 99	37 49	66 63	99 95

RUSSIAN TARIFF FOR 1842.

	IMPORT DUTIES.	Rou- bles.	Co- pecks
Cotton Yarn,.....	per pood	6	50
Dyed and Mixed, White and Colored,.....	pood	8	00
Turkey Red,.....	pood	15	20
Fabrics, Pure and Mixed, Non-transparent, such as Percals, Fustians, Velverets, and other cloths, White, Plain, or with Designs, or Striped, as well as the common tissue of Turkish origin called Hassa,.....	pood	0	83
Handkerchiefs in piece of the same,.....	pood	1	85
Tissues dyed of one single color, and embroidered in designs in White, not separately classed,.....	pood	1	85
Handkerchiefs, the same,.....	pood	2	50
And so on to Shawls and Handkerchiefs of pure Cotton, or mixed with Linen and Hemp, with Colored Designs, &c., in imitation of those of Turkey and Cashmere,.....	pood	9	45
Linens—Tablecloths, Napkins, Towels, &c., pure or mixed with Cotton or Wool,.....	pood	2	30
Silk Goods, pure or mixed, of one color and changeable, plain and with woven designs, of same color and shade, such as Satins, Tafetas, Levantines, Serges, as well as Velvets of Silk, pure and mixed, of one color,.....	pood	5	00
With designs woven and stamped,.....	pood	7	50
With gold or silver, fine or false,.....	pood	10	20
Handkerchiefs as foregoing, from 7 50 to.....	pood	12	50
Silk, Transparent, from 15 roubles per pound to.....	pood	25	00
Woollens—Yarn White and Dyed,.....	pood	17	25
Cloths—Kerseymeres, Ladies' Cloths, Ratteens, Black, Blue Black, Green deeper than Gazon, of one color, or mixed with White, as well as white and blue whites,.....	pood	3	50
Cloths as before, of every color not named, and of various colors, mixed,.....	pood	1	80
Flannels, Velvets, Plush, &c.	pood	1	20
Handkerchiefs and Shawls in imitation Cashmere,.....	pood	10	50
Carpets,.....	pood	0	65
Carpets—Embroidered or made up with fringes, &c.	pood	1	26
Linens—Batiste, Toile de Cambrai, White, Plain,.....	pood	5	06
Handkerchiefs the same, and with small white or colored borders, not above an inch broad,.....	pood	5	06
Having more than an inch flower,.....	pood	6	90
Fabrics of Linen or Hemp, pure or mixed with cotton, (excepting as rated),.....	pood	1	85
Pocket handkerchiefs as before with borders or without,.....	pood	2	10
Pieces Dyed one color, Figured, Striped, or Embroidered, not separately specified,.....	pood	6	90
Handkerchiefs, ditto,.....	pood	9	20
Handkerchiefs and Cloths, Printed,.....			prohibited.
Pottery, varnished pieces, pots and objects of all sorts, white, varnished, and not varnished, except objects not specially denominated,	pood	4	65
Linen or Hempen Yarn, combed or not,.....	pood	4	80
" " " " Dyed,.....	pood	7	20
Sugar, Raw,.....	pood	3	80
Refined,.....			prohibited.
Molasses,.....	pood	2	00
Coffee,.....	pood	6	15
Cutlery, Razors, Knives, &c.,.....	pound	1	20
With ivory and pearl, &c.	pound	5	80
Fine Cutlery,.....			prohibited.
Tin, in sheets,.....	per berkovitz	45	00
Coal,.....			free.

EXPORT DUTIES.

			<i>Internal Navigation Duty.</i>	
		Roubles. Copecks.	Roubles. Copecks.	
Hemp,	per berkowitz	1 00	0	10
Flax, by sea,	berkowitz	1 50	0	15
Flax, by land,	berkowitz	1 00	0	10
Tallow,	berkowitz	2 00	0	20
Wheat,	tchetwert	0 06	0	00 $\frac{1}{2}$
Potash, Pearlash, &c.	berkovitz	0 50	0	05
Flaxseed, by sea,	tchetwert	0 25	0	02 $\frac{1}{2}$
Flaxseed, by land,	tchetwert	0 12	0	01 $\frac{1}{2}$
Hempseed, by sea,	tchetwert	0 15	0	01 $\frac{1}{2}$
Hempseed, by land,	tchetwert	0 12	0	01 $\frac{1}{2}$

Such is the Russian tariff for 1842.

COMMERCIAL STATISTICS.

COMMERCE AND TONNAGE OF THE UNITED STATES.

The following statistical view of the tonnage and commerce of the United States is derived from a speech of the Hon. Levi Woodbury, the late Secretary of the Treasury. The data is taken from official documents.

The tonnage owned by citizens of the United States was, in 1820, 1,280,165 tons; in 1830, 1,181,776; in 1840, 2,180,764; during the first ten years falling off nearly 100,000 tons, while during the second, it increased nearly 1,000,000 tons. The tonnage of the state of Maine was, in 1820, 140,373 tons; in 1830, 182,485; while in 1840 it had increased to 308,056. Of Massachusetts, in 1820, 315,000; in 1830, 350,000; and in 1840, 539,000. The registered tonnage, or that engaged in foreign trade, in 1820, was 619,000 tons; in 1830 it had decreased to 576,000; while in 1840 it was 899,000 tons. The enrolled tonnage, or that engaged in our domestic trade, was, in 1820, 661,000 tons; in 1830, 615,301, having fallen off, notwithstanding the high tariff; while in 1840 it had risen to 1,262,000 tons. The new tonnage built in the United States in the year 1820, was 47,000 tons; in 1830, 58,000 tons; while in 1840, it was 118,000 tons. In the state of Maine there was built in 1830, 3,364 tons; while in 1840 there was built 38,936 tons.

He then adverted to the tonnage engaged in the carrying trade between this and foreign countries. In 1820 the American tonnage so employed amounted to 804,000 tons; in 1830, 971,000; and in 1840, 1,647,090. The foreign tonnage so employed in 1820 was 100,000 tons; in 1830, 133,000; and in 1840, 712,000 tons; showing that in a commerce to which foreign nations may lay claim to an equal share, our tonnage is more than double theirs. The American tonnage employed in the carrying trade of the four great southern ports, Charleston, Savannah, Mobile, and New Orleans, was, in 1820, 140,000 tons; in 1830, 231,000 tons; and in 1840, 494,000 tons. The foreign tonnage in the same trade in 1820 was 55,000 tons; in 1830, 70,000; and in 1840, 195,000 tons. The American tonnage engaged in the trade between the United States and England and her dependencies was, in 1820, 315,000 tons; in 1830, 343,000; and in 1840, 868,000 tons. The nominal amount of the English tonnage in the same trade was greatly swelled by steamboats on the lakes engaged in carrying passengers on the lakes, which stop at the different ports, their tonnage being counted at every port where they stop. He called attention to a somewhat singular fact, that a port called St. Vincent, in the

state of Vermont, ranked as the fourth in the Union in the amount of tonnage entered and cleared during the year 1840, being exceeded only by New York, Boston, and New Orleans. Upon inquiry of the collector, he had ascertained this was occasioned by steamboats which make thirty or forty trips each year, and schooners making fifteen and twenty, the tonnage being counted each time. The American tonnage in the trade to England alone was, in 1820, 128,000; 1830, 192,000; and in 1840, 358,000 tons. The foreign tonnage in the trade between the two countries was, in 1820, 19,000; in 1830, 58,000; and in 1840, 129,000 tons. The American tonnage in the trade between us and the British West Indies was, in 1820, 22,000 tons; in 1830, 25,000; and in 1840 it had increased to 78,000 tons. The foreign tonnage engaged in the same trade in 1840 was 13,000 tons. The American tonnage engaged in the trade between us and the Hanse Towns was, in 1820, 17,000 tons; in 1830, 14,000; and in 1840, 17,000; while the foreign tonnage was, in 1820, 4,000 tons; in 1830, 10,000; and in 1840, 42,000. This showed a balance against us, for which he considered there was more than an equivalent in the markets opened to our goods into the very heart of Germany.

Having disposed of the tonnage, he would turn to the value of our commerce at the different periods. In 1820 our exports amounted to \$69,000,000; in 1830, \$73,000,000; and in 1840, \$132,000,000. Of these there were of domestic origin, in 1820, \$51,000,000; in 1830, \$59,462,629; and in 1840, \$113,762,617. Our imports amounted in 1820 to 74,000,000; in 1830, to \$76,000,000; and in 1840 to \$107,000,000.

Our exports to Great Britain and Ireland amounted in 1820 to \$28,000,000; in 1830 to \$31,000,000; and in 1840 to \$70,000,000. Our exports to the British provinces in North America amounted in 1820 to 2,000,000; in 1830 to \$3,000,000; and in 1840 it had swelled to \$5,889,015; of this a large proportion are breadstuffs, which go to feed the troops in Canada, and to be transhipped to England, where it gets in free of duty, and this of course increases the tonnage of Great Britain in her trade with these provinces. The value of breadstuffs exported in 1820 was \$5,000,000; in 1830, \$6,000,000; in 1840, \$12,993,545, of which \$9,353,402 was to England and her dependencies. Our exports to the Hanse Towns in 1820 amounted to \$1,500,000; in 1830, \$1,500,000; and in 1840 to \$3,367,963; and this gain in our exports he considered a full equivalent for our loss in tonnage. The whole amount of our exports and imports in American vessels in 1820 was \$137,000,000; in 1830, it had fallen to \$129,000,000; and in 1840 it rose to \$198,000,000. The amount in foreign vessels in 1820 was \$17,000,000; in 1830, \$14,000,000; and in 1840, \$40,000,000. Thus demonstrating that five times as much of our commerce was carried on by American vessels as those of all other countries. Of our exports to England, American vessels carried in 1820 to the value of \$41,000,000; in 1830, \$48,000,000; in 1840, \$88,000,000; and English vessels in 1820, \$10,000,000; in 1830, \$9,000,000; and in 1840, \$21,000,000, or less than one fourth as much as the Americans.

Mr. Woodbury next proceeded to show the great augmentation of our commerce with those nations particularly whose products were admitted free of duty, of which France will furnish a fair sample, the imports from which to this country in 1820 amounted to \$6,000,000; in 1830 to \$8,000,000; and in 1840 to \$17,000,000. Our exports to that country amounted in 1820 to \$9,000,000; in 1830 to \$11,000,000; and in 1840 to \$19,000,000. Of the carrying trade of the four great southern ports, Charleston, Savannah, Mobile, and New Orleans, American bottoms conveyed in 1821, to the value of \$12,500,000; in 1830, \$31,000,000; and in 1840 \$50,000,000. While foreign vessels had in 1820 \$7,000,000; in 1830, \$6,000,000; and in 1840 \$13,000,000.

MERCANTILE MISCELLANIES.

THE EXCHANGE AT MANCHESTER, ENGLAND.

The Manchester Exchange may be regarded as the parliament-house of the cotton lords; it is their legislative assembly; the affairs of the executive are intrusted to a smaller body, which meets in the Chamber of Commerce, located in a different part of the town. This parliament assembles every Tuesday, and the attendance is greatest about one o'clock, being the hour of "high change." There is, perhaps, no part of the world in which so much is done and so little said in the same space of time. A stranger sees nothing at first but a collection of gentlemen, with thoughtful, intelligent faces, who converse with each other in laconic whispers, supply the defects of words by nods and signs, move noiselessly from one part of the room to another, guided as if by some hidden instinct to the precise person in the crowd with whom they have business to transact. A phrenologist will nowhere meet such a collection of decidedly clever heads. The physiognomist who declared that he could find traces of stupidity in the faces of the wisest philosophers, would be at a loss to find any indication of its presence in the countenances assembled on the exchange at Manchester. Genius appears to be not less rare than folly; the characteristic features of the meeting, collectively and individually, are those of talent in high working order. Whether trade be brisk or dull, "high change" is equally crowded; and the difference of its aspect at the two periods is sufficiently striking. In stirring times, every man on change seems as if he belonged to the community of dancing dervishes, being utterly incapable of remaining for a single second in one place. It is the principle of a Manchester man, that "nought is done while aught remains to do;" let him but have the opportunity, and he will undertake to supply all the markets between China and Peru, and will be exceedingly vexed if he has lost an opportunity of selling some yarn at Japan on his way. When trade is dull, the merchants and factors stand motionless as statues, or move about as slowly as if they followed a funeral; the look of eagerness is exchanged for that of dogged obstinacy; it seems to say—"My mind is made up to lose so much, but I am resolved to lose no more." An increase of sternness and inflexibility accompanies the decline of the Manchester trade, and foreigners declare that the worst time to expect a bargain is a season of distress. "High change" lasts little more than an hour; after the clock has struck two, the meeting gradually melts away, and before three the building is as silent and deserted as one of the catacombs of Egypt.—*England in the Nineteenth Century.*

ENDORSING NOTES.

What (asks the Boston Transcript) can be more vexatious than to become involved by endorsements? You meet with a friend who wishes to get a discount at a bank. It is necessary to have an endorser. He asks you to put your name on the back of his note, merely as a matter of form. Out of kindness or good nature you do it, though you reap not the least benefit by so doing. By and by, the note becomes due. It is not paid, and you are forthwith notified that you, being the endorser, must hand over the needful. There is no remedy. Your name is down in black and white, and you cannot erase it. Can any thing be more provoking? Here you have done a good-natured act of disinterested benevolence, and your pocket must suffer for it. A debt accrued by another must be paid by yourself, and all the satisfaction you receive is that you must "pocket the loss" with the best grace you can. Yet, you can learn a lesson of wisdom from such an event, which is, NEVER to do so any more. Such are the benefits of endorsing, and such will they be till the whole system is abolished.

A MATHEMATICAL PROBLEM.

To the Editor of the Merchants' Magazine :

I have seen with much gratification that your pages are open to the discussion of such mathematical problems as need frequent solution in commercial transactions; and I doubt not that proficients in the several departments of business and clerkdom, by the publication of their processes, the simplification of rules, and elucidation of principles, may do much to diminish the labor of computation and ensure accuracy of results, and confer vast benefit upon the mercantile community. I regard all these simple and rapid methods to be as entitled to consideration and application as any labor-saving processes or *machines*, and consider the inventors of them entitled to the gratitude of those whose tasks they would relieve.

I would ask permission through the medium of your pages, to propose to your mathematical contributors for the readiest solution the following problem.

A consignee, having received from various consigners several parcels of the same commodity, of different qualities, and known or appreciable difference in market value, and having sold the whole at an average price, wishes to apportion this price to the several owners, so that each may receive his equitable share. Required the simplest and readiest solution. For instance—

He receives the 1st lot from A, of 820 pounds, gallons, yards, or other quantities.

2d	"	B, of 160	do.	do.	do.	do.
3d	"	C, of 1,510	do.	do.	do.	do.
4th	"	D, of 300	do.	do.	do.	do.
5th	"	E, of 940	do.	do.	do.	do.
6th	"	F, of 720	do.	do.	do.	do.
7th	"	G, of 570	do.	do.	do.	do.
Total, 5,020			do.	do.	do.	do.

Now the first lot is worth one cent per lb. more than the 2d; the 2d is worth $\frac{1}{2}$ cent more than the 3d; the 3d $\frac{1}{2}$ cent more than the 4th; the 4th $\frac{1}{2}$ cent more than the 5th; the 5th $\frac{1}{2}$ cent more than the 6th; and the 6th $\frac{1}{2}$ cent more than the 7th. He sells the whole at an average price of 14 $\frac{1}{2}$ cents. How shall this price be apportioned among the owners? Questions of this nature, in some mercantile establishments, are of quite frequent occurrence, and a simple and easy solution is much desired. I propose this problem in the hope that some of your contributors may be able to solve it by a process shorter than the usual one, which is extremely tedious and unsatisfactory.

Truly yours, T. D. N.

COST OF MONOPOLIES.

Three pamphlets have recently been published in England, against monopolies. The author of the first, which is entitled "The Many Sacrificed to the Few," estimates that the monopoly of grain, of all kinds, costs the country £21,860,928 a year; of meat, £10,583,333; of butter and cheese, £4,246,666; of timber, £7,000,000; and of tallow, £500,000. Total, £44,790,927 a year! The author of the second of these pamphlets, which is entitled "The Advantages of Monopoly, proved by the effects of the Sugar Monopoly," shows that the nation paid £9,060,794 (exclusive of duty) for its sugar in 1840; and that the same quantity of Brazil sugar would only have cost £3,952,945, leaving the enormous sum of £5,207,049 as the cost of the sugar monopoly to the nation in that one year! The author of the third, entitled "The Preference Interests, or the Misnamed Protective Duties shown to be Public Oppression," shows that the taxes paid exclusively by the landed interest amount to £1,531,915 out of £52,226,959—or equal to one pound for every thirty-three of the whole taxation; while the landed interests of France, Flanders, all Germany, and all Italy, pay at least one half of the taxation of their

respective countries in a direct tax upon land ! This author estimates the monopoly of grain to cost the nation £6,000,000 a year ; that of butcher's meat, £18,000,000 ; and that of sugar £4,000,000 a year ; besides those of timber, coffee, and other articles.

DECLINE OF THE WHISKEY TRADE.

A most remarkable reduction has taken place in the demand for this article during the past twelve months. The demand was much reduced a year ago ; but now it is not half what it was then. The distillers, four or five years since, were running their works night and day, pressed with the demand for whiskey, and consuming rye and corn in immense quantities ; at one time four thousand five hundred bushels daily. Now the consumption is less than two thousand bushels daily, and is rapidly diminishing. There is on hand here a stock of twelve thousand barrels of whiskey, and such is the decreased demand, that there is no diminution of stock, notwithstanding the great diminution of supply. The distillers appear to be as much pleased with the change as their fellow-citizens generally. They are now reducing their work as fast as possible, so that for the next crop of coarse grain we presume the demand in this market from the distillers will not exceed one fourth of what it was at the highest point. The falling off cannot be less than a million of bushels for the year. This change cannot but have some effect on the market. Yet, on the other hand, the men who for years back have been guzzling whiskey and leaving their families half starved, will now eat bread and meat, and keep their families well fed. In a multitude of families this happy change has already taken place. The nation will not be made poor by the revolution, but rich ; business will not be stagnated, but stimulated by it. No man is vicious and wasteful without causing some mischief to society, and no man is industrious and virtuous without adding something to the common aggregate of general wealth and happiness. Society does not truly thrive upon the vices and dissipations of its members, but upon their morality and general good habits. Vice will be made a mother of trade, as every thing else is ; but those who make money by it are likely to contract its pollution, and so sink with those whom they pamper or rob. Virtue makes the man who practices it vigorous and comfortable, and generally gives him some property. As the wealth of a nation is the aggregate of its individual wealth, so the business of a whole people is measured by the aggregate of its industry. The loss of the whiskey business, therefore, will be a gain to the general business and wealth of the country.—*Journal of Commerce.*

FRAUD IN PACKING FLOUR.

A communication has been published in the Utica Democrat charging the millers in various parts of the state of New York with fraud in packing flour. It was stated that 20,000 barrels of flour were sold annually in Utica, the most of which sell short from two to twenty-two pounds per barrel. The Rochester Daily Democrat publishes the following statements from the different flour dealers of Utica, by which it will be seen that the charges of fraud are totally unsupported by facts.

Dows, Guiteau & Kissam state that they have weighed one barrel from each lot in their store, and give the following as the result of the test :—

	<i>Gross.</i>	<i>Tare.</i>	<i>Nett lbs. Flour.</i>
Railroad Mills,.....	222	23	199
Grand Rapid Mills,.....	211	17	194
H. B. Williams' Mills,.....	215	18	197
J. & A. Cox's Mills,.....	216	17	199
Williams & Hitchcock,.....	214	18	196
J. H. Bennett,.....	214	19	195
J. Bell & Co.,.....	213	17	196
J. Lathrop,.....	216	18	196
Juliet Mills,.....	220	17	203

W. P. Swift & Co. weighed one barrel from each lot in store, with the following result:—

	<i>Gross.</i>	<i>Tare.</i>	<i>Nett lbs. Flour.</i>
I. H. Beach,.....	214	18	196
H. Earl,.....	211	15	196
H. Clinton,.....	212	17	195
J. Howell,.....	218	19	199
G. M. & W. Richardson,.....	217	20	197
L. A. Spalding,.....	216	19	197
T. Kempshall,.....	213	17	196
J. Graves,.....	214	18	196
R. Fisher,.....	215	18	197
Owasco,.....	214	18	196

Butler, Farnell & Co. weighed a single barrel from each lot in store, with the following result:—

	<i>Gross.</i>	<i>Tare.</i>	<i>Nett lbs. Flour.</i>
Medina Mills,.....	215	19	196
Fitzhugh, Oswego,.....	219	22	197
Howell & Germain,.....	214	17	197
Clinton Mills, K. & B.,.....	215	20	195
L. Wright, Oswego,.....	216	20	196
C. J. Hill, Rochester,.....	214	17	197
Kempshall, Rochester,.....	216½	20	196½
Daniels, Union Mills,.....	216½	19	197½
Stephens, Livonia Mills,.....	215	18	197
A. Dixson, do. do.	221	20	201
Railroad Brand,.....	220	23	197

THE BOOK TRADE.

1.—*Notes of a Tour through Turkey, Greece, Egypt, Arabia Petrea, to the Holy Land; including a visit to Athens, Sparta, Delphi, Cairo, Thebes, Mt. Etna, Petra, etc.* By E. JAY MORRIS. 2 vols. 12mo. pp. 253—303. Philadelphia: Carey and Hart. 1842.

A portion of the contents of these well-printed volumes originally appeared in the United States Gazette, under the title of "Memoranda of a Tour in the East." The intervals of the narrative have been filled up by the author, so that it now presents a continuous tour through Greece, Egypt, Arabia Petrea, and a part of Turkey. The minuteness of detail indulged in by Mr. M., will be of some utility to the traveller who pursues the same route, and will enable the reader to form a better opinion of the Egyptian monuments than would be conveyed by a mere record of impressions. The interesting works of Mr. Stephens, and the learned and elaborate travels and researches of Professor Robinson, noticed in a former number of this magazine, would seem sufficient to occupy public attention upon the East, but the route pursued in the narrative before us, and the necessary difference of description, give a fresh interest to the work of our author, and will of course command some degree of public favor. The volumes appear to give a faithful description of what came under the eye of the author, and they are written in an agreeable and easy style.

2.—*Poems and Lyrics.* By WILLIAM B. TAPPAN. 12mo. pp. 263. Boston: Crocker & Ruggles. 1842.

This is, we believe, the third series of the poetical productions of the author; and none of the present collection have before been given to the public in a connected form. They are mostly short pieces and of recent date. The chief excellence of Mr. Tappan, as a fugitive poet, consists in the moral and religious tendency of his mind, which is infused into every line or stanza that flows from his ready pen. Among the occasional pieces, we notice one on "Bread or Blood," the awful inscription upon some of the banners recently paraded in the provincial towns of England; another "For China," referring to the Chinese war and the opium question; which breathe the true Christian sentiment on these subjects.

- 3.—*The Life of George Washington.* By JARED SPARKS. 8vo. pp. 562. Boston: Tappan & Dennet. 1842.

This volume furnishes one of the most elegant specimens of the progress of the typographic art recently produced in the United States. The contents of the volume are essentially the same as those of the volume prefixed to Washington's Writings. Designed, however, for readers who may not have access to that work, such additions have been made as would contribute to enhance its value in the form of a separate publication. "The materials for the Life, as well as for the larger works, have been drawn from the manuscripts at Mount Vernon, papers in the public offices of London, Paris, Washington, and all the old thirteen states; and also from the private papers of many of the principal leaders in the revolution. The entire mass of manuscripts left by General Washington, consisting of more than two hundred folio volumes, was in the author's hands ten years." From these materials he aimed to select and combine the most important facts, tending to exhibit, in their true light, the character, actions, and opinions of Washington. It is unquestionably the most authentic and best Life of the immortal patriot that has been, or ever will be published, and it should find a place in every family and school-district library in the country.

- 4.—*The Works of the Right Rev. Father in God, Joseph Butler, D. C. L., late Lord Bishop of Durham.* To which is prefixed an account of the character and writings of the author. By SAMUEL HALLIFAX, D. D., late Lord Bishop of Gloucester. 8vo. pp. 593. New York: Robert Carter. 1842.

This is, we believe, the first complete American reprint of the works of Bishop Butler. The "Analogy of Religion" has long been a text book in most of our universities and theological schools, and has the consenting praise of all denominations of Christians as the most profound and unanswerable dissertation on natural and revealed religion, in human language. The volume contains, besides the "Analogy," two dissertations on "Personal Identity," and on the "Nature of Virtue," twenty-five discourses on "Human Nature, or man considered as a moral agent," and six sermons preached upon public occasions. The works of Butler, based as they are upon the reasonableness and philosophy of natural and revealed truth, are the property of all sects in Christendom. The present edition is printed from the English plates imported by Mr. Carter, for the express purpose of furnishing a complete and beautiful copy of a favorite theologian, whose profound knowledge, and prodigious strength of mind, are amply displayed in his incomparable writings.

- 5.—*Mexico in 1842: A Description of the Country, its Natural and Political Features; with a sketch of its history, brought down to the present time.* To which is added an account of Texas and Yucatan, and of the Santa Fe Expedition. 18mo. pp. 256. New York: Charles J. Folsom.

The present state of affairs in Mexico and Texas, naturally creates a desire to become acquainted with the physical and political condition of those countries; and it is the object of this work to bring together, from the latest and most authenticated sources, such *data* as may be useful for the better understanding of events in that quarter of the great American continent. It furnishes a mass of information in a comprehensive form, which, if accurate, must prove useful to the emigrant, as well as interesting to all who take an interest in the progress of republicanism. Nearly one hundred pages are devoted to a description of the new republic of Texas, embracing the correspondence of Santa Anna with Bee and Hamilton, and a notice of the Santa Fe expedition.

- 6.—*The Domestic Circle, or Moral and Social Duties explained and enforced on Scriptural Principles, in a series of discourses.* By the Rev. M. SORIN. 12mo. pp. 260. New York: Saxton & Miles.

The subjects embraced in this volume are, as may be inferred from the titlepage quoted, decidedly practical. The volume, it is stated by the author, was not originally intended for public inspection, but was composed chiefly to methodize the writer's own views on the several topics embraced in the series. The writer belongs to that numerous and respectable denomination of Christians—the Methodists; but we see little in the book that any serious or well-disposed person can object to on the score of sectarian sentiment. The principal subjects discussed are—the nature and obligation of the marriage compact; the duties of parents and children, masters and servants; family religion, &c.

7.—*A Practical Treatise on the Law of Contracts not under Seal, and upon the usual Defences to Actions thereon.* By JOSEPH CHITTY, Jun., Esq., of the Middle Temple. Fifth American edition, from the third London edition; corrected, re-arranged, and enlarged by THOMAS CHITTY, Esq., of the Middle Temple. With notes of American decisions on the law of contracts, to the present time; by J. C. PERKINS, Esq. Springfield, Mass.: G. & C. Merriam. 1842.

The work before us is probably the most able and comprehensive treatise on the law of parol contracts ever written. Its author is so well known, that any mention we can make of him will in no respect add to his high reputation as a lawyer, nor need members of the American Bar be reminded of the usefulness of any legal work proceeding from his pen. Indeed, there are few whose libraries do not contain some of the numerous volumes he has written and compiled, and we venture to say that few of these are of more real importance than the one before us. In addition to the text, which comprises the entire body of the English law upon the subject of unsealed agreements, the margin contains a full and exceedingly copious selection of digested American cases, embracing the most important rules of law upon contracts, in nearly all of the different states in the Union. These are well arranged too, and are alone worth nearly the price of the work. We are gratified to perceive the handsome and permanent manner in which it is got up. The durability of law books, when their high price is considered, is of no little importance, and the publishers we have mentioned have spared no expense in rendering this so. They have also published several other legal works of much importance, and we take pleasure in recommending them to the notice of the members of the American Bar.

8.—*The Duty of the Free States; or Remarks suggested by the case of the Creole.* By WILLIAM E. CHANNING. 12mo. Parts 1 and 2—pp. 54 and 93. Boston: William Crosby & Co.

The first part of this tract was devoted to an examination of the affair of the Creole case. Its object, however, says Dr. C., was not so much to determine the merits of a particular case, as to set forth general principles of justice and humanity, which have been too much overlooked in the intercourse of individuals and nations. The same object is kept in view in the second part, which has no reference to the Creole, but is devoted to the consideration of the duties of the free states. Dr. Channing here declares it to be his great aim, in what he has written and now writes, on matters of public interest, to re-unite politics and morality, to bring into harmony the law of the land and the law of God. He views, and justly in our opinion, among the chief causes of the miseries of nations, the divorce which has taken place between politics and morality; and he would give up all hope for a better day, till this breach be healed. We have read the dissertation with deep interest, and earnestly commend it to the attention of the whole American people, as the offspring of a profound mind, deeply penetrated with the love and veneration of humanity and its high destiny.

9.—*The Bankrupt Law of the United States, with an outline of the System; together with the Rules and Forms in Massachusetts, and references to recent decisions.* By P. W. CHANDLER, one of the Commissioners of Bankruptcy in Massachusetts. 12mo. pp. 103. Boston: James H. Weeks. 1842.

This volume contains a neat and compact edition of the Bankrupt Law of 1840, including the rules and forms which have been adopted in the district of Massachusetts, besides presenting a general outline or exposition of the bankrupt system, introduced by the law, with reference to the more important decisions which have been made upon the act, and which have come before the public in an authentic shape. The act of Congress confers extraordinary powers upon the courts of the United States, and several questions under the law have already been decided upon full consideration; and these decisions are referred to very amply in this volume, "because the time has not yet come for a systematic treatise on the subject; and it was desirable that the work should not be increased beyond its present size."

10.—*Persevere, and You Must Succeed, or The History of Mary Smith.* 18mo. pp. 94. Boston: William Crosby. 1842.

It is the object of this simple tale, to illustrate the sentiment embraced in the titlepage, and the writer has, we think, succeeded to a charm in the endeavor.

- 11.—*The Life of Wilbur Fisk, D. D.***, First President of the Wesleyan University. By JOHN HOLDICH. 1 vol. 8vo. pp. 455. New York: Harper & Brothers.

Well known and highly esteemed as was the excellent individual whose Life is here given, we doubt if his warmest admirers and most intimate friends have been fully aware of his many excellencies, and the extent of his useful labors; they will learn, for the first time, from this beautiful memoir, how great and good a man he was—at least so it has been with us; we had never appreciated him at half his real worth. Death has consecrated his virtues, and presented his character to us in many interesting lights that wholly escaped our notice while he was living. Professor Holdich was designated by Dr Fisk, a few days only before his decease, to write his Life; and from the conviction, no doubt, that no other person was so well qualified, from personal intimacy, and a perfect knowledge of him, to do entire justice to his character. The confidence was not misplaced—the sacred trust has been nobly discharged; and the result is a work no less just to its subject than creditable to its author, and which will be read with the deepest interest by the community.

- 12.—*The Great Commission, or The Christian Church Constituted and Charged to Carry the Gospel to the World.*** By the Rev. JOHN HARRIS, D. D., author of "Mammon," the "Great Teacher," etc. 12mo. pp. 484. Boston: Gould, Kendall & Lincoln.

To this treatise was awarded the prize of two hundred guineas, offered for the best essay "on the duty, privilege, and encouragement of Christians to send the Gospel to the unlightened nations of the earth." The competition was understood to be confined within the limits of the United Kingdom. The extension of it to America was subsequently suggested, but the suggestion, say the adjudicators, came too late to admit of its being properly adopted. Another prize of fifty guineas was awarded to Rev. Richard Hamilton, of Leeds. There were forty-two essays received by the committee, differing of course very widely in character and claims, "from some of an inferior order, rising through higher degrees in the scale of merit, to a considerable number of sterling excellence." Appendix to the American edition of this treatise, is an introductory essay by Dr. WILLIAMS, of New York. Aside from the interest the work possesses to the friends of missions, its literary claims are of the highest order of excellence, and must place it among the classics in religious literature.

- 13.—*The Great Awakening.*** A History of the Revival of Religion in the time of Edwards and Whitfield. By JOSEPH TRACY. 8vo. pp. 433. Boston: Tappan & Dennet. 1842.

In 1840, public meetings were held in some places, chiefly by those denominations Presbyterians or Calvinists, in commemoration of what Edwards called "The Revival of Religion in New England, in 1740." This "revival" forms the basis of the present work; and we are informed by the author, that opinions concerning it were various and discordant, even among those who entertain similar doctrinal or theological views; some thinking it worthy of unmixed eulogy in public celebrations, others speaking of it with only guarded and qualified commendations, and others doubting whether it should not be mentioned rather with censure than otherwise. The design of Mr. Tracy, in the present work, is to furnish the means of suitably appreciating what he considers the good and the evil of that period of religious history. The volume is enriched with many anecdotes of Whitfield and his times, and is on the whole a well written work on a subject that interests a large portion of the religious community of the present day.

- 14.—*Wilson's American Ornithology, with Notes by Jardine;*** to which is added a synopsis of American Birds, including those described by Bonaparte, Audubon, Nuttall, and Richardson. By T. M. BREWER. 18mo. pp. 746. Boston: Otis, Broaders & Co.

The present edition of Wilson's Ornithology, adapted to general circulation, supplies a want long felt in the United States, and it will doubtless serve to extend the fame of the author, give a wide scope to the influence of his genius, and promote an interest in the study of American ornithology. In accomplishing these objects, Mr. Brewer the American editor has followed the original work of Wilson, adding thereto the copious and valuable Notes of Jardine. The compiler acknowledges his indebtedness to Audubon for the assistance he received from the labors and writings of that illustrious ornithologist. It is neatly printed, and handsomely illustrated with steel engravings.

15.—*Jahr's New Manual of Homœopathic Practice.* Edited, with Annotations, by A. GERALD HULL, M. D. Second American Edition, from the Third, or Paris Edition. 2 vols. 8vo. New York: William Radde.

It seldom falls to our lot to notice a work on Homœopathy, and though we do it with diffidence, it is accompanied also with pleasure. We think it incumbent upon every Physician to give to this subject his mature deliberation, and not to reject it, untried and unknown. The author boldly challenges the test of experience, and is willing to stand or fall by it. And the rapid strides which the new system of medicine has made in the old world gives it a strong claim to the attention and respect of the practitioners of the new. And whilst the infinitesimal doses and sugar globules, have afforded scope to the ingenuity and satire of many, let us not forget that Galileo was confined as a lunatic, and the experiments of our own Franklin were considered too puerile for refutation, but the world has since been convinced that the former was not mad, and the philosophy of the latter will bid defiance to detractors, whilst the lightnings of heaven play harmless around us. In the present edition of this work much has been added by Dr. Hull, and the result of his extensive practice, aided by a refined and discriminating mind, has been carefully noted, and will afford great advantage to those seeking either information or improvement in this branch of science.

16.—*Cincinnati in 1841: its Early Annals and Future Prospects.* By CHARLES CIST. 12mo. pp. 300. New York: R. Carter.

The author of this volume was employed as one of the marshals for taking the census of 1840, and the volume before us owes its origin to this circumstance. The reports which Mr. C. made in the Cincinnati public prints of his progress in taking the census of that city for 1840, enhanced and illustrated as they are with various observations and incidents springing from his official inquiries, form the basis of this work, and render it at once attractive and useful. We cannot perhaps give a better illustration of the progress of Cincinnati than is exhibited in the following table of the increase of population since 1795, derived from the work:

Year.	Population.	Year.	Population.
1795	500	1829	22,148
1800	750	1830	24,831
1805	960	1831	26,071
1810	2,320	1832	28,014
1813	4,000	1833	27,645
1815	6,000	1835	29,000
1820	9,602	1839	42,500
1824	12,016	1840	46,381
1826	15,540	1841	50,000

17.—*Exchange Tables, designed to furnish the Public with an accurate set of Calculations for Computing Profit and Loss, Interest and Exchange, and to facilitate the Merchant in advancing on Invoice Prices of Foreign Merchandise, and a Convenient Reckoner, and Test of Computations of Small or Great Magnitude.* Also, presenting to the Broker, Banking Institutions, and Public Offices, Discount and Advance Tables, for arbitrating Foreign and Domestic Exchanges, with several Tables of Foreign Moneys, Weights, and Measures. Each compared with the Standard of the United States. By WILLIAM G. ALLYN. 8vo. pp. 180. Buffalo: Saxon & Read, and Robert D. Foy. 1841.

These tables are all expressed in whole and decimal numbers, so as to conform to the Federal currency of the United States; and those for exchange, rebate, premiums, and interest, are written to represent small or large amounts, at pleasure. The arrangement of the work is convenient and in some respects original, and if it is accurately printed, we believe that it will prove a valuable acquisition to those for whom it is designed.

18.—*The American Gardner; A Treatise on the Situation, Soil, Fencing, and Laying out of Gardens; on the Making and Managing of Hot-beds and Green-houses; and on the Propagation and Cultivation of Vegetables, Herbs, Fruits, and Flowers.* By WILLIAM COBBETT. 18mo. pp. 271. Boston: Saxton & Peirce. 1842.

This is the first American stereotype edition of a very popular treatise. It has justly, we think, been said that "no man in England could make things go like Cobbett." Every part of this treatise is plain, direct, and to the point. Its general use would, we have no doubt, improve the aspect and greatly enhance the comfort and agricultural resources of our country.

- 19.—*Letters to Young Men Preparing for the Christian Ministry.* By WILLIAM COGSWELL, D. D., Secretary of the American Education Society. 18mo. pp. 236.
 20.—*A Help to Professing Christians in Judging their Spiritual State and Growth in Grace.* By the Rev. JOHN BARR. 18mo. pp. 307.
 21.—*The Commandment with Promise.* By the author of *The Last Day of the Week.* 18mo. pp. 285.
 22.—*Missionary Sermons and Addresses.* By ELI SMITH, missionary to Syria. 18mo. pp. 229.
 23.—*The Telescope, or Sacred Views of Things Past, Present, and to Come.* By SAMUEL MOTT, Jr. 18mo. pp. 180. New York: Saxton & Miles.

These five volumes are, as will be inferred from the titles quoted above, of a theological cast. Most of them are new editions of religious works. The views advanced in the various subjects treated, are of course of the popular "orthodox" theology. They are neatly printed, and are furnished by the enterprising publishers, Messrs. Saxton & Miles, at a very moderate price; thus placing them within the reach of all who have a taste for this kind of reading.

- 24.—*The Official and other Papers of the late Major-General Alexander Hamilton.* Compiled chiefly from the originals in the possession of Mrs. Hamilton. Vol. 1. Svo. pp. 496. New York and London: Wiley & Putnam. 1842.

The present volume is the first of a series, designed to embody the political writings of Alexander Hamilton, and it embraces his earlier efforts when only in his fourteenth year, commencing in 1769, and ending in 1780. It consists mainly of papers of a controversial character, and of letters to prominent individuals who were his contemporaries. Although many of them may be considered merely juvenile productions, they yet bear the strongly marked impress of the mind of their author in maturer years; namely, boldness, vigor, clearness, comprehensiveness, classical elegance, and condensed expression. Many of these papers and letters are now, for the first time, made known to the public. The publication of this series, that may be considered documentary, inasmuch as they comprise the efforts of a powerful and distinguished patriot who was identified with the formation of our government, is a laudable enterprise, and it has found a fitting editor in one of our most eloquent and able clergymen, Dr. Hawks.

COMMERCE AND THE FINE ARTS.

The connexion between the fine arts and commerce has been frequently noticed. A reference to the Italian mercantile communities of Genoa, Venice, and Florence, where the arts were carried to the highest perfection, at the same time that trade was pursued with unexampled vigor, establishes the fact, and proves that the artist has in the merchant a surer dependence for that patronage which is the life-blood of art, than upon the members of any other profession or order of the state. Such being the case, we have good reason to felicitate ourselves upon the prospect of high national excellence. We are a nation of great merchants, and we ought in consequence to be a nation of great artists.

This well-founded expectation we are happy to say is, in our opinion, in a fair way of being realized. If we look over our large list of artists in sculpture and in painting, we shall find an array of men of the highest genius, who will bear comparison with any in the world; men who have already achieved great things and who promise yet more.

We have not space even to enumerate the names of our distinguished artists, but we will take this opportunity to mention one who holds, in a very important department of his art, a most distinguished place. The portraits of Mr. Jerome Thompson are universally acknowledged by all who have examined them, to be unsurpassed in beauty of coloring, anatomical delineation, and correctness of drawing. They are also most faithful likenesses; not mere dull transcripts of the features, but spirited representations of character and sentiment. Mr. Thompson's portraits are well known, and it is therefore needless here to dwell upon their peculiar characteristics. Graceful, pleasing, and correct, they have justly elevated the reputation of the artist to a very high rank in his profession, and insured for him that degree of professional success which is justly due to his merits.